

DEVELOPMENT OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP: A PROPOSED MODEL FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

WILLEM DRIESSE ERASMUS



Dissertation presented for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
Public and Development Management
at
Stellenbosch University

Promoter: Doctor F. Uys

December 2009

DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously, either in its entirety or in part, submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: 18 September 2009

ABSTRACT

The result of this research is an alternative model for leadership character development in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). The SANDF reflects the racial and cultural diversity of South Africa as a nation. The need for a unifying leadership-related mechanism for the military milieu in which humane leadership development will flourish, is evident. This statement is based on the premise that no evidence is found that any previous efforts by the SANDF to instil a leadership philosophy or policy as a way of military life was successful.

Further shortcomings in the current SANDF leadership development model, apart from the reality that its selection process of officer candidates needs improvement, are the absence of political guidance and participation in the development of its military leaders, as well as emaciated attention to the development of the character side of leaders during officer formative training. The SANDF, unlike the international tendency, has no military leadership institution to ensure that its leadership development policies and practices are based on sound academic research. Such an institution will also ensure that the SANDF stays contemporary in the global field of military leadership development.

The shortcomings of the current SANDF Model were identified by progressing through the academic theories on leadership and leadership development to a comparative analysis of leadership development practices in the militaries of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and the SANDF. This supplied the information needed to propose the Five Point Star Model (FPS Model) for leadership character development in the SANDF. The five components of the FPS Model, which address the shortcomings of the current SANDF Model, are Convergent Leadership, Political Participation, Superior Selection, Interventions for Leadership Character Development, and a Military Leadership Institution.

OPSOMMING

Die uitkoms van hierdie navorsing is 'n alternatiewe model wat die tekortkominge in die ontwikkeling van leierskapkarakter in die Suid Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag (SANW) aanspreek. Die SANW weerspieël die rasse- en kulturele diversiteit van die Suid Afrikaanse nasie, wat die behoefte aan 'n samebindende leierskapsverwante meganisme na vore bring. Hierdie stelling is gegrond daarop dat geen bewys, waar die SANW daarin geslaag het om 'n samebindende leierskapsfilosofie of –beleid as 'n militêre leefwyse te vestig, gevind is om sodoende die militêre milieu te skep waarin mensgerigte leierskap sal floreer nie.

Verdere tekortkominge in die huidige Leierskapsontwikkelingsmodel van die SANW, bo en behalwe dat die keuringsproses van kandidaat-offisiere uitgebrei en verbeter moet word, is die afwesigheid van politieke deelname en rigtinggewing waar die ontwikkeling van die land se jong militêre leiers ter sprake is. Te min aandag word ook gewy aan die ontwikkeling van kandidaat-offisiere se karakter of inbors tydens offisiërsvorming kursusse. Die internasionale tendens is vir weermagte om 'n militêre leierskapsinstelling te hê. Die SANW het nie so 'n instelling om te verseker dat militêre leierskapsontwikkelingsbeleid en -praktyke op behoorlike akademiese navorsing gefundeer is nie. Dit maak dit moeilik om 'n kontemporêre bydrae in die internasionale veld van militêre leierskap te maak.

Die wyse waarop die tekortkominge van die huidige SANW Leierskapsontwikkelingsmodel geïdentifiseer is, was om voort te bou op die akademiese teorieë oor leierskap en leierskapsontwikkeling en om 'n vergelykende studie tussen leierskapsontwikkelingspraktyke in die weermagte van Duitsland, Brittanje, Kanada en die SANW te doen. Die vergelykende studie het inligting verskaf om die Vyfpuntster Model vir die ontwikkeling van leierskapkarakter in die SANW voor te stel. Die vyf komponente van die nuwe model spreek die tekortkominge van die huidige SANW Model aan, en die komponente is Konvergerende Leierskap, Politieke Deelhebberskap, Voortreflike Keuring, Intervensies vir Leierskapkarakterontwikkeling, en 'n Instansie vir Militêre Leierskap.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The self-development value of writing this dissertation will only be understood by those who dared to do the same. To my promoter, Doctor Frederik Uys, who at all times made the way forward clear and unambiguous, my sincere gratitude. Acknowledgement is also given to the internal examiner, Professor E. Schwella, and the external examiners, Doctors T. Edwards and C.A Keyter for their valuable insight and recommendations.

My sincere gratitude to the Dean of the Faculty of Military Science (South African Military Academy), University of Stellenbosch, and the Commandant of the South African Military Academy as well as to the South African National Defence Force for supporting my research, and especially for making the international field research possible. The same gratitude to the defence forces of Germany, the United Kingdom and Canada for their professional assistance during my research.

My appreciation to Betty Russel-Smith for the technical and language editing of the dissertation.

To my wife, Ilse, and son, Johan; my truthful gratitude and loving appreciation cannot be expressed in words.

To my son, Jaco, who passed away on 31 August 2009 at the age of nineteen. You taught me more about leadership and character than would ever be realised.

All credit to God.

CONTENTS

Declaration	(i)
Abstract	(ii)
Opsomming	(iii)
Acknowledgements	(iv)
List of Appendices	(xiv)
List of Figures	(xv)
List of Tables	(xvi)

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Problem statement	1
1.3	The aim and significance of the research	3
1.4	Literature review and chapter arrangement	5
1.4.1	Literature review	5
1.4.2	Chapter arrangement	6

1.5	Research methodology	7
1.6	Challenges for further research	14

CHAPTER 2: LEADERSHIP: A THEORETICAL APPROACH

2.1	Introduction	16
2.2	Defining leadership: From the classical to the contemporary	17
2.2.1	Classical descriptions of leadership	17
2.2.1.1	Plato	17
2.2.1.2	Sun Tzu	17
2.2.1.3	Machiavelli	19
2.2.2	Contemporary definitions of leadership	20
2.3	Contemporary approaches to leadership	23
2.3.1	The trait approach	23
2.3.2	The behavioural approach	25
2.3.3	The contingency approach	30
2.3.3.1	Hersey and Blanchard's situational model	30
2.3.3.2	Fiedler's contingency model	32

2.3.3.3 The path-goal approach	35
2.3.3.4 The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model: When to involve subordinates	37
2.3.4 Transactional and transformational leadership	41
2.3.4.1 Transactional leadership	41
2.3.4.2 Transformational leadership	42
2.4 Summary	45

CHAPTER 3: THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF A LEADER: LEADERSHIP CHARACTER

3.1 Introduction	47
3.2 The distinctiveness of leaders	48
3.2.1 The debate on whether leaders are born or made	48
3.2.2 The difference between leaders and managers	51
3.2.3 What leaders are not	54
3.3 The inner make-up of leaders	55
3.3.1 Clarification of concepts	55
3.3.2 The desired character traits of a leader	57
3.3.3 The difference between personality and character	61

3.3.4	Emotional intelligence	63
3.4	Empirical research on the development of military leadership character	67
3.5	Summary	68

CHAPTER 4: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN ARMED FORCES

4.1	Introduction	70
4.2	<i>Innere Führung</i> : A German military solution for developing leadership character	73
4.2.1	Tracing the origin of the concept of <i>Innere Führung</i>	73
4.2.1.1	The influence of World War II	73
4.2.1.2	The integration of the National Peoples Army into the <i>Bundeswehr</i>	74
4.2.2	Statutory foundations of <i>Innere Führung</i>	76
4.2.3	Practical application of <i>Innere Führung</i>	78
4.2.3.1	Guidelines for the practical application of <i>Innere Führung</i>	80
4.2.4	An appraisal of <i>Innere Führung</i>	84
4.2.5	Officer selection in the <i>Bundeswehr</i>	87

4.3	Perspectives on a time-honoured society's approach to military leadership character development: The United Kingdom	89
4.3.1	Leadership character development in the British Army	90
4.3.1.1	The Army Officer Selection Board	90
4.3.1.2	Leadership character development at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst	96
4.3.2	An appraisal of the leadership character development of British Army officer cadets	101
4.4	Military leadership character development in Canada	103
4.4.1	Officer selection in the Canadian Forces	104
4.4.2	The Canadian Forces' approach to leadership character development	107
4.4.2.1	The Canadian Forces' professional development framework	108
4.4.2.2	The Canadian Forces' guideline on leadership development	113
4.5	Summary	116

CHAPTER 5: THE CURRENT LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT STATE OF AFFAIRS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MILITARY

5.1	Introduction	118
5.2	The emergence of a defence force for all	119

5.2.1	The epoch of securocrats	119
5.2.1.1	Security legislation	121
5.2.1.2	Security management	121
5.2.1.3	Vigilantes	122
5.2.1.4	Hit squads	122
5.2.2	The integration of eight armed forces	123
5.2.2.1	Absorption <i>versus</i> integration	124
5.2.2.2	Integration, transformation and rationalization	125
5.2.2.3	The influence of integration on the South African National Defence Force	127
5.3	Leadership character development in the South African National Defence Force	129
5.3.1	Statutory foundations for leadership development in the South African National Defence Force	129
5.3.1.1	The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996)	130
5.3.1.2	White Paper on National Defence for the Republic of South Africa	132
5.3.1.3	The South African Defence Review	134
5.3.1.4	The Defence Act, 2002 (No 42 of 2002)	134

5.3.1.5	The Department of Defence policies	135
5.3.2	Leadership, command and management in the South African Army	139
5.3.2.1	The South African Army: Character traits of a leader	141
5.3.2.2	The scope of the South African Army leadership, command and management manual	143
5.3.2.3	The scope of the basic full range leadership course	146
5.3.3	Officer selection in the South African Army	151
5.3.4	Leadership character development in practice: The South African Army Gymnasium	153
5.3.5	Leadership character development in practice: The South African Military Academy	156
5.3.5.1	The Faculty	157
5.3.5.2	The Section Military Development	158
5.3.5.3	The Security Institute for Governance and Leadership in Africa	164
5.4	The nature of military operations of the current defence forces of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa	164
5.5	Summary	167

CHAPTER 6: SITUATIONS RELEVANT TO MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT: AN EVALUATION OF THE DEFENCE FORCES OF GERMANY, THE UNITED KINGDOM, CANADA AND SOUTH AFRICA

6.1	Introduction	169
6.2	The relation between academic theories and practice in military leadership character development	171
6.2.1	Classical theories	171
6.2.2	Contemporary theories	172
6.2.3	The building blocks of a leader	174
6.3	The coming into being of the current defence forces of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa	179
6.4	The nature of military operations of the current defence forces	181
6.5	Statutory foundations for, and political commitment in, military leadership character development in Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa	183
6.6	The selection of officers	188
6.7	Military leadership character development in practice	190
6.7.1	The South African National Defence Force in comparison with the <i>Bundeswehr</i>	191

6.7.2	The South African National Defence Force in comparison with the British Army	192
6.7.3	The South African National Defence Force in comparison with the Canadian Forces	194
6.8	Summary	196

CHAPTER 7: THE FIVE POINT STAR MODEL: AN ALTERNATIVE LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

7.1	Introduction	198
7.2	Convergent leadership	200
7.2.1	Leadership philosophy	201
7.2.2	A convergent leadership policy for the South African National Defence Force	206
7.2.2.1	The unifying mechanism	207
7.2.2.2	The policy	207
7.3	Political participation	211
7.4	Superior selection	213
7.5	Interventions for leadership character development	215

7.5.1	Adventurous training	217
7.5.2	Time spent on developing leadership character	220
7.5.3	Selection of instructors at officer training institutions	220
7.6	A dedicated military leadership institution: The South African National Defence Force Centre for Leadership	222
7.6.1	Germany	222
7.6.2	The United Kingdom	223
7.6.3	Canada	223
7.6.4	South Africa	224
7.7	Summary	227
CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS		232
LIST OF REFERENCES		237
LIST OF APPENDICES		
Appendix A:	Questionnaire: Perceptions of character development: SA Military Academy	A-1
Appendix B:	BFRL Course: Syndicate exercise on delegation	B-1

Appendix C:	BFRL Course: Syndicate exercise on feedback	C-1
Appendix D:	BFRL Course: Development plan	D-1
Appendix E:	SA Military Academy buddy rating exercise	E-1

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1:	Continuum of leadership behaviour	27
Figure 2.2:	The managerial grid	29
Figure 2.3:	How the style of effective leadership varies with the situation	34
Figure 3.1:	Character traits and their meaning	59
Figure 4.1:	Dimensions to analyse the mind, body and soul	94
Figure 4.2:	AOSB organisation	95
Figure 4.3:	Competing values model of organisational effectiveness	110
Figure 5.1:	Hierarchy of government policies	130
Figure 5.2:	The Clover Model of leadership, command and management	141
Figure 5.3:	The full range leadership model	147

Figure 7.1:	Outline of the Five Point Star Model of military leadership character development	200
Figure 7.2:	The Five Point Star Model of military leadership character development	230

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1:	Distinction between managers and leaders	52
Table 3.2:	Typical character traits of leaders	58
Table 4.1:	Performance appraisal on the leadership and qualities of a British Army officer cadet	100
Table 4.2:	The leader framework – five elements, sixteen attributes	112
Table 5.1:	Numbers of armed forces integrated to form the SANDF	124
Table 5.2:	Officers formative course at SA Army Gymnasium	154
Table 6.1:	The development of the modern defence forces of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa	181
Table 6.2:	The nature of military operations of the current defence forces	182
Table 6.3:	Statutory foundations for military leadership character development in Germany, the United Kingdom and South Africa	187

Table 6.4:	Leadership character development in practice	194
Table 6.5:	Elements acceptable for the South African scenario	195
Table 7.1:	Adventurous training and leadership character	219
Table 7.2	The contribution and benefits of the Five Point Star Model towards leadership character development	227

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

“Leaders are more powerful role models when they learn than when they teach.”

Rosabeth Moss Kantor

1.1 INTRODUCTION

One may assume that no nation wants its military leaders to be dishonest cowards with no integrity and weak characters. It is rather a given that militaries, as representatives of their respective nations, desire their military leaders to be bearers of admirable character traits such as courage, honesty, integrity, loyalty and selfless service.

Leadership development is thus an integral part of military officer training and development, and if the leadership development efforts do not pertinently address the character of candidates, officers will not achieve their full potential.

Leadership development is not a stagnant concept. It has been developed over time and will continue to develop as research progresses. It therefore stands to reason that any country's defence force will benefit from continuously determining whether its leadership development practices are still relevant, and adapting them to fit the demands made on modern military leaders.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

South Africa has a diverse social order. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) bestows official status on eleven different languages (Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu). These different linguistic communities differ in

culture and tradition. In addition, South African society comprises four major race groups, namely Blacks, Coloureds, Indians and Whites. Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism and Traditional African Religions are freely practised in the country and add to its diversity.

The South African National Defence Force (SANDF) reflects this diversity, and one may assume that among the members there will be differences in culture and their general approach to life. Ever since humans began documenting life, leaders have received significant attention, and many leaders' names are indelibly recorded in history. These leaders became renowned by leading their followers into conflict with those of different cultures and beliefs, whereas today's leaders in the SANDF must be competent to accommodate and unify diversity in order to ensure an efficient armed force.

Defining leadership, leadership development and the development of leadership character is complex in itself, but even more so are attempts to develop human beings into military leaders with the appropriate leadership character – leaders who are not only experts in military command, but who will be able to foster an environment in which a truly diverse armed force can operate well as an integral part of South African society.

Leadership is important for the SANDF, as it is for all militaries, and the SANDF has procedures in place for leadership development. The theories on leadership are relatively simple to teach and learn, and the SANDF's leadership policies mention the importance of the character of a leader, but its approach to leadership development is to teach the concept of leadership, irrespective of the social environment or organisational culture, or attempting to find the best candidates to influence. The challenge is to find a way or system in which to influence an individual human being into becoming a person with the appropriate qualities and character needed to lead soldiers, especially if the leaders and followers are products of a diverse society. Part of the challenge is to internalise such a system to the point that it becomes a way of

military life, and to get role players involved to sustain and further develop the system.

One cannot separate leadership development from leadership character development, but one should acknowledge the role of character in the development of leadership. Approaches to leadership development often neglect the inner person, or they acknowledge the relevance of desired leadership character but fail to enhance the development of the individual's character; probably due to the lack of empirical research on the effectiveness of interventions to develop a leader's character.

The problem is thus that South Africa has a defence force that is in need of a leadership-related unifying mechanism, as well as a system which accentuates the character side of leadership. One cannot state that officers as leaders should demonstrate qualities such as courage, integrity, initiative and judgement; and then have no real system in place which is conducive to the development thereof, and which does not visibly and knowingly develop such character traits.

The challenge of this research then lies in finding a model which will not be perceived as foreign by South Africans, and which provides workable suggestions on how to develop the young leaders of the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) to the extent that they will be recognised as leaders with character.

1.3 THE AIM AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

This research endeavours to find a way to take leadership development in the SANDF to a higher level. The aim is to redefine leadership development in the SANDF so that it does not only focus on the concept of leadership itself, but is comprehended as a total package of elements which, in the end, will also address the character side of leadership; in other words to propose an alternative to the current model of leadership development, not necessarily to completely replace it, but

to modify it to include more components and so address the development of leadership character to a greater extent.

The current SANDF, firstly, does not have a unifying leadership-related mechanism in place to give rise to a milieu in which leadership and leadership character development will flourish. Secondly, the SANDF does not have the benefit of political leadership or political involvement in, or backing of, a leadership development philosophy to the extent that the importance thereof is realised by all South Africans and truly supported by Government; a system that is found to be working well for Germany. Thirdly, the SANDF can improve significantly on its method of selecting candidates in whom valuable resources are invested to ensure they develop into officers who can successfully lead. The SANDF, fourthly, can only benefit from leadership character development interventions which are thoroughly understood by the training institutions employing them and by utilizing them to their full extent. Lastly, the SANDF lacks a dedicated leadership institution to serve as the nodal point of research on military leadership development, where discussions on the topic are hosted and encouraged and where academic theory can be translated into up-to-date and user-friendly SANDF policies and doctrine. That is the significance and contribution of this research; a leadership development model which is made up of components designed to deal with each of the afore-mentioned shortcomings.

Specific objectives of the dissertation are:

- To analyse the foundational principals of leadership to serve as a basis for further specialisation (Chapter 2).
- To analyse relevant information on leadership character, for the reason that the research addresses the development of the character of a leader (Chapter 3).

- To do international (Chapter 4) and national (Chapter 5) field research on the topic of military leadership character development, firstly to historically contextualise different militaries, and secondly, to analyse current practices of militaries to develop leadership character.
- To do an evaluation of the literature on leadership (Chapter 2), the literature on a leader's character (Chapter 3), international research information (Chapter 4) and national research information (Chapter 5).
- To determine best practices, nationally and internationally, with regards to military leadership character development (Chapter 6).
- To identify shortcoming in the current SANDF Model (Chapter 6); and
- To address the shortcomings of the current SANDF Model, while recognising existing positive practices, by proposing a normative model for leadership character development. The normative model incorporates specific recommendations and each proposal of the model is motivated (Chapter 7).

1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW AND CHAPTER ARRANGEMENT

1.4.1 Literature Review

Theories on leadership and military leadership are readily available. Less literature is available on military leadership character, but sufficient sources could be consulted to shape an informed perspective on the topic. The challenge is to maintain a rational correlation between the classical views on leadership, contemporary theories on leadership and the inner person of a leader, as well as to contextualise these theories in a military leadership and military leadership character development approach.

The above-mentioned aspects formed the basis for further literature research in government publications, acts, directives and policies, both national and international, as well as military policies and doctrine on leadership development, once again, nationally and internationally.

1.4.2 Chapter Arrangement

The first chapter covers the aspects relevant to the problem statement. The second and third chapters are structured to introduce the reader to leadership as a concept on its own, and then to focus on the inner person or character of a leader. The literature review begins in Chapter 2 where the classical and contemporary approaches to leadership are explained. The literature then shifts in Chapter 3 from leadership as a concept to the leader as a person. Leaders are distinguished from non-leaders, and the inner make-up of leaders is investigated. Chapter 3 also covers empirical research on the development of an individual's leadership character.

Chapters 4 and 5 are the result of national and international field research conducted in 2007 and 2008. Chapter 4 deals with information received from the defence forces of Germany, the United Kingdom and Canada. The approach of each country's military leadership development concept is explained, with the focus on the specific aspects that each country holds as its major contribution to military leadership and leadership character development. It thus amounts to an explanation of best practices pertaining to international military leadership development.

The current South African military leadership development model is explained in Chapter 5. The flow of historical events which shaped the existence of the current SANDF are given to portray the milieu in which any development efforts must function. How to eventually become an officer and leader in the SANDF, including the policies and doctrine followed and taught, and the activities of the two SANDF units responsible for leadership development (of prospective leaders) are examined.

Chapters 4 and 5 provide the legislative foundations (where applicable) on which the military policies and doctrine of the relevant countries are based.

Chapter 6 covers the evaluation of the four countries' approaches to leadership and leadership character development (Germany, United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa), as well as an evaluation of the general theory covered in Chapters 2 and 3 to determine on which aspects the countries differ, which elements are comparable with each other, how the theories apply in practice, and which elements are suitable to adopt and/or adapt for an alternative leadership character development model for the SANDF.

Chapter 7 proposes an alternative SANDF Leadership Character Development Model. For reasons to be explained, the Model is named The Five Point Star Model. It consists of five components called Convergent Leadership Policy, Political Participation, Superior Selection, Interventions for Leadership Character Development and a Dedicated Military Leadership Institution, and it is believed that the Model offers a solution for the research problem.

The final summary and conclusions are given in Chapter 8.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A qualitative approach, where attempts are made to make sense of an issue by studying it in its natural settings, was followed. This was preceded by the usual study of historical and contemporary literature on the subjects of leaders and leadership.

The practical component of the research included visits by the researcher to Germany and the United Kingdom during 2007. These two countries, as well as South Africa, were the primary sources of information in that physical research was done at the respective military institutions.

Canada is a secondary source, as the opportunity to visit the country was not realised, but technology made access to information about the Canadian Forces readily available. The possibility of the Canadian individuals not comprehending the research problem to the same extent as the representatives of the primary sources is acknowledged and understood, nevertheless, the information received is viewed as valuable and made a significant contribution to solving the research problem. Electronic mail was used to initialise communication with the former Director of the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute, Colonel Bernd Horn (the institute is a research, development and publishing directorate of the Canadian Defence Academy of the Canadian Forces). He was instrumental in supplying authoritative printed literature and documents on leadership in the Canadian Forces via air mail.

The choice of international countries was based upon the following (more detail on each Country's relevance is given in Chapters 4 and 5):

- **Germany.** A prospective developmental model for the SANDF can find relevance in the *Bundeswehr* (Germany's defence force), because both the *Bundeswehr* and the SANDF developed under related circumstances. Both armed forces' predecessors alienated themselves from society, and both forces went through an integration phase where previous military enemies were joined together and are now serving their respective democratic governments. The *Bundeswehr* developed a concept of leadership called *Innere Führung*, which they believe is not only a solution to the aforementioned challenges, but is also the foundation upon which their leadership character development is built. Further, a parallel exists between Germany's Basic Law (Constitution) and South Africa's Constitution, especially on the importance of human rights.
- **United Kingdom.** South Africa is a former British Colony, and the SANDF's current doctrine and military organisation and structure is still largely based on the British system. Although the majority of South African society are Black

Africans whose backgrounds and cultures differ from citizens of any other continent, the SANDF is not structured according to an African example, but more according to the British structure, and therefore British military methods can find application in the SANDF. The acceptability of British influence in the SANDF were also proven during the post 1994 integration process with the willingness of South Africa to accept the British Military Advisory and Training Team (B MATT) to facilitate the integration.

- **Canada.** Canada was included firstly because the Canadian Forces are of comparable size to the SANDF, and secondly for their focus on research in military leadership, as well as to incorporate another continent in the research. It is also not uncommon for the SANDF to include Canada in other fact-finding missions, for example to compare the content of SANDF courses with their Canadian equivalent in order to get them accredited with the South African Qualifications Association (SAQA). Canada and the Canadian Forces also deal with diversity issues, and even today all its military policies and doctrines are written in both French and English. Further, 97% of the Canadian Forces' Lieutenant Colonels have a PhD qualification. Their focus on research in the military and the value they attach to a military leadership research institution is thus commendable.

The initial research plan included African countries such as Kenya and Botswana. Although knowledge about their militaries and especially their military leadership development approaches were lacking, they attracted interest because of either their economic prosperity or political stability, the argument being that a country contributing to a normative model should be internationally recognised as being commendable. Botswana, for example, is economically stable and is Africa's longest lasting continuous democracy. Unfortunately, in spite of several attempts made to initialise correspondence by directly contacting a designated senior officer of their defence force, no response was received.

Kenya is recognised as the strongest economy in the East African region, and traditionally has an organised military system. South Africa's military attaché in Kenya attempted to provide information, but was severely constrained by the political instability which was prevalent at the time (violent conflict between the supporters of Kibaki on the one side and Odinga on the other side). The only information gathered was very little data on their Armed Forces Training College which provided nothing significant to contribute to the research. It is also known that most African countries' militaries are based upon previous colonial systems, as is South Africa's SANDF.

Fortunately the African continent is represented in the normative model by South Africa, with the result that the model includes research information from the continents of Europe, the United Kingdom, North America and Africa.

The international research visits to Germany and the United Kingdom, and the research on Canada was preceded by supplying them with structured questions or requests, in other words each country were requested to supply information on exactly the same following research questions:

- The countries' approaches to military leadership character development – what their views are on the importance thereof and how they undertake the actual development thereof.
- Current programmes to develop leadership character – detail about the content of programmes, and, if available, methods to test the effectiveness of programmes.
- National legislation which is prescriptive with regards to military leadership character development and military doctrine and documents that address the topic.

- The importance of leadership character in the selection of officer recruits in the military forces – whether it is a determining factor in accepting or declining a candidate.

The first international research visit was to Germany. The visit was initialised by electronic mail correspondence with a German academic, Professor Reiner Pommerin, who holds the chair for Modern and Contemporary History at the Technical University of Dresden. Professor Pommerin is also a member of the Joint Task Group, which acts in an advisory capacity to the Federal Minister of Defence. Electronic mail was also used to communicate with the SANDF's Military Attaché in Berlin, Captain (South African Navy) J. Sinovich. Both these gentlemen were of the opinion that the *Zentrum Innere Führung* at Koblenz, West Germany, is the principal institution for research on military leadership character development in Germany. Professor Pommerin established contact between the researcher and the *Zentrum Innere Führung*.

The research took the form of detailed presentations or lectures by, and interviews with senior staff of the *Zentrum Innere Führung* with sufficient opportunity for questions and answers. As mentioned before, each country has prepared beforehand for the research visit, and the author was the only member of the audience for each presentation. Government publications and policies, doctrines and course material were made available, and free access to the institution's library was granted. Questions that arose at later stages after the visit were answered via electronic mail. The gentlemen of *Zentrum Innere Führung* who aided the research and made presentations were:

- Brigadier-General A. Bach, the General in command of the *Zentrum Innere Führung* (welcoming and 40 minutes induction about the *Zentrum Innere Führung* as an institution; 30 minutes closure after the research visit).

- *Oberst im Generalstabsdienst* (Colonel) P. Gerhard, Chief of Staff *Zentrum Innere Führung* (40 minute introduction to the concept of *Innere Führung*); and
- *Oberstleutnant* (Lieutenant Colonel) C. Wilke, Staff Officer Army *Zentrum Innere Führung* (day 1 - 6 hour lecture/presentation on the *Bundeswehr*; day 2 – 8 hour lecture/presentation on the concept of *Innere Führung*, and how it relates to the German Basic Law and the *Bundeswehr's* approach to leadership character development; 2 days after hours access to the *Zentrum Innere Führung* library).

A similar research visit was made to the United Kingdom after establishing contact with the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst (RMAS) at Camberley, England, via South Africa's Military Attaché in London. The staff of RMAS also organised a research visit to the British Army Officers Selection Board (AOSB), a fully-fledged military unit at Westbury, England. The research was again in the form of detailed presentations or lectures by, and interviews with senior staff of both RMAS and AOSB, with similar opportunities for questions and answers and full access to the library at RMAS. Policies, doctrines, course material and academic literature were also made available, and the opportunity to later follow up on uncertainties was possible through electronic mail communication. The British gentlemen who offered assistance during the research visit and made presentations were:

- Lieutenant Colonel C. Allender, Education Advisor at the Army Officer Selection Board, Westbury (1 hour 30 minutes lecture/presentation on the required character dimensions of British Army officer candidates).
- Mr M. Bennet, Deputy Head of Communications & Management Studies at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, Camberley (2 hours lecture/presentation on the British Army in general, and the academic leadership content of programmes at RMAS).

- Lieutenant Colonel B. De La Hey, Commander Old School at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, Camberley (4 hours lecture/presentation on current practices at RMAS to develop leadership character).
- Major B. Hughes, Staff Officer Leadership at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, Camberley (welcoming and 40 minutes induction to RMAS; 2 days after hours access to RMAS library; 30 minutes closure after research visit); and
- Lieutenant Colonel (retired) S. Norman, Advisor to the Army Officer Selection Board, Westbury (4 hours lecture/presentation on the practical and theoretical aspects of the officer selection process; 1 hour in practice exposure to actual selection activities and exercises while officer candidates are performing the activities).

The information supplied by the Canadian Forces was based on their interpretation of the afore-mentioned structured research questions as supplied beforehand by the researcher. Similarly, the research done in South Africa was focused on answering the same questions.

In South Africa research was done on the leadership development activities of the two units involved in the development of the SANDF's prospective leaders as candidate officers and young, junior officers; the SA Army Gymnasium at Heidelberg in Gauteng Province, and the South African Military Academy at Saldanha in the Western Cape Province.

Correspondence with the SA Army Gymnasium took the form of telephonic conversations with Lieutenant Colonel L.S. Janse van Rensburg, Branch Commander Formative Branch SA Army Gymnasium, followed up by electronic mail correspondence. He also supplied literature which included military doctrine and course material (information on current SA Army practices to develop leadership

character). Telephonic communication also transpired with Colonel C.M. Peddle, Senior Staff Officer Career Management SA Army Headquarters, who supplied information on the SANDF's officer selection practices and selection board procedures.

The researcher is a staff member of the South African Military Academy's Faculty of Military Science, which made it relatively easy to conduct research there. The Military Academy's policies and doctrine were studied and interviews held with Major M. Booÿjens, Senior Military Instructor South African Military Academy Section Military Development, who supplied information on current practices at the Military Academy to develop leadership character.

The proposed leadership character development model explained in Chapter 7 was arrived at by analysing the different countries' best practices in leadership development, and determining which elements are compatible with and employable in the SANDF. Comparisons between the general theory of leadership development and the practice thereof in the relevant countries' armed forces were also carried out. Comparative shortcomings in the current SANDF Leadership Development Model were identified, and a combination of international and national leadership developmental elements were adopted and/or adapted into an alternative model for the SANDF.

1.6 CHALLENGES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Challenges for further research which could not be addressed in this dissertation include the following:

- The development of a questionnaire or specific instrument to determine whether there is a scientifically measurable improvement in the leadership character of candidates before being exposed to the development

interventions as compared to after being exposed to the development interventions.

- To evaluate the leadership character development practices of other African militaries by applying the normative model; and
- Researching the applicability of the normative model to the rest of South Africa's security cluster.

The purpose of the next chapter is to introduce the reader to the concept of leadership, and to serve as foundational principles for further specialisation.

CHAPTER 2

LEADERSHIP: A THEORETICAL APPROACH

“Time is neutral and does not change things. With courage and initiative, leaders change things.”

Jesse Jackson

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to delve into the essence of this research, that is, the development of leadership character; it is of key importance to first secure an operative understanding of leadership itself. This chapter will determine *what leadership is*, whereas the next chapter will show *who leaders are*.

The reader will initially be introduced to classical contemplations on leadership by legendary figures such as Plato, Sun Tzu and Niccolò Machiavelli. Plato, who loathed democracy, held expertise as the foundation of leadership in high esteem. Sun Tzu, a scholar of the science of warfare, believed that the true art of leadership is not found in the act of war itself, but in the avoidance of war. Machiavelli advised the princes of his era on the essential tactics and traits needed to gain and maintain power, even if circumstances dictated less commendable actions and qualities.

Following the classical perspective on leadership, the task of defining the multifaceted concept of leadership is attempted. Compacting hundreds of thoughts on a complex phenomenon such as leadership proves to be a real challenge, and the most appropriate definition depends on the specific focus of the researcher.

The study then proceeds on to the different approaches to leadership. The schools of thought under discussion vary from the trait approach, behavioural approach and contingency approaches to an overview on transactional and transformational

leadership. The essence and value of each approach is examined, and critique on the validity and/or applicability of the various approaches is offered.

2.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP: FROM THE CLASSICAL TO THE CONTEMPORARY

Stogdill (in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:459) declares that the number of different definitions of leadership can almost be equated to the number of people who have attempted to define the concept. Classical approaches to leadership can be found in the writings of pioneers such as Plato, Sun Tzu, and Niccolò Machiavelli (Grint, 1997:ix, 19), the common factor being that these insights were all written against a background of war or conflict.

2.2.1 Classical Descriptions of Leadership

2.2.1.1 Plato

About 2000 years ago, Plato (in ancient Athens) defended expertise as the basis for leadership, though strongly rejecting any form of democracy as a method for selecting leaders (Grint, 1997:ix). Grint (1997:20) interprets him as having said: "...only the captain [of a ship] has the necessary knowledge. The crew, without the expertise to recognize a true expert, is easily corrupted and, inevitably, the ship will founder as impostor after impostor assumes the helm on the grounds of public popularity rather than navigational skill". According to Johnson (2001:51) Plato identified the primary virtues of a leader as prudence, justice, courage and self-restraint.

2.2.1.2 Sun Tzu

The Chinese philosopher, Sun Tzu, wrote on the art of war, including his views on leaders and leadership, somewhere between 500 and 300 BC (Grint, 1997:ix, 21,

22). For him the real art did not lie in the act of war itself, but in the avoidance of war. Grint (1997:21, 43) accentuates Sun Tzu's antipathy for political leaders (as opposed to military leaders) who interfere with military strategy by quoting him: "There are occasions when the commands of the sovereign need not be obeyed. ... when it is expedient in operations, the general need not be restricted by the commands of the sovereign. ...the general, ... is not responsible to the heavens above, to the earth beneath, to the enemy in his front, or to the sovereign in his rear. ...when you see the correct course, act; do not wait for orders."

Some of his reflections on which attributes a leader should rather not demonstrate include:

- Recklessness (could lead to death).
- Cowardice (could lead to capture).
- Quick-temperedness (could lead to making a fool of the leader).
- Too delicate a sense of honour ("one anxious to defend his reputation pays no regard to anything else").
- A compassionate nature (could lead to harassment).

In the present day, the world continues to extract from Sun Tzu's wisdom as expressed by Krause, who adapted Sun Tzu's views on how leaders should operate (in Grint, 1997:22). He uses typical terminology of the classical approach such as "learn to fight, do it right, expect the worst, burn the bridges, keep them guessing, and seize the day", in his theory for successful leaders.

2.2.1.3 Machiavelli

Niccolò Machiavelli (Johnson, 2001:4) was a political adviser who lived during the renaissance in Italy (early 1500s). In his book *The Prince*, he advised princes that less commendable tactics and traits were acceptable if the result were the preservation of power. His strategies included manipulation, physical intimidation, lies, hatred, fear and control. He considered it necessary for princes, if they wanted to maintain power, to learn to not be good (Burns, 1979:445). A sardonic contrast, however, seems to exist between his first book, *The Discourses*, and *The Prince*. In *The Discourses* he promotes the virtues of a republic (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:52), some of which are:

- “An organization is more stable if members have the right to express their differences and solve their conflicts within it.”
- “While one person can begin an organization, it is lasting when it is left in the care of many and when many desire to maintain it.”

This is quite paradoxical to his advice to ruling aristocrats as theorized in his second publication.

These classical scholars in leadership made no real attempt to define leadership as such, or rather; they did not endeavour to condense the concept into one or two sentences. Their theories were more a complete package of heredity, actions, tactics, traits, expertise, circumstances, principles, physical environments, survival tactics and political preferences ordered in such a way as to offer the best possible combination to either gain and/or maintain power.

2.2.2 Contemporary Definitions of Leadership

For the purpose of this research, contemporary views on leadership are those developed after World War II, as opposed to the classical views which were developed between five centuries and millenniums ago.

The post World War II approaches to leadership were, and are not, necessarily researched against the background of war and conflict as were the classical approaches; nevertheless, one can assume that authors on leadership have some or other background against which their thoughts are shaped. These background settings could be war, conflict, economic crises, business challenges, socio-economic challenges, cultural tendencies, political aspirations, peace and/or prosperity.

Moving on to contemporary definitions of leadership, Stoner & Freeman, (1989:459) identify three components in their attempt to define leadership, namely other people, power and influence. Without other people to direct and inspire, nothing (no one) is left to be led, making the process of leadership extraneous. Power is seen as the ability of the leader to direct others, whereas influence designates the persuasive or manipulative capability of the leader. The definition encompassing these three elements is: "The process of directing and inspiring workers to perform the task-related activities of the group."

Van Dyk (in Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk, 1995:4) infers that there is a greater call for effective leadership than ever before, and that this need for leadership is evident in all levels of government, the economy and other groupings. In defining leadership, Van Dyk quotes Schilbach (in Gerber *et al*, 1995:4) as: "...an interpersonal process through which a leader applies communication skills to direct the activities of individuals and groups towards the purposeful pursuance of given objects in a given situation".

Burns (1979:2) shares the observation that classical literature presented leadership as a complete and encompassing concept, rather than dissolving it into small, discrete meanings. He perceives the concoction of hundreds of contemporary definitions of the word “leadership” as generating serious intellectual difficulties for the study and theories of leadership. He does, however, define leadership as: “...leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations – the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations – of both leaders and followers” (Burns, 1979:19). Kellerman (2004:4) writes that Burns’ definition of leadership continues to dominate the field. Burns emphasizes the crucial variable as *purpose*; collective purpose of both leaders and followers. Acknowledgement of followers’ preferences; or anticipation of followers’ responses; as well as harmonizing the actions of both leader and follower with their common motives, values and goals, can all be grounds for leaders modifying their leadership. Leaders and followers are dependent on each other and share in the consequences of their planning (Burns, 1979:426).

Du Brin (1995:2) expresses leadership as a partnership, and draws on Peter Block to clarify partnership as a move away from authoritarianism toward shared decision making. A valid partnership exists if:

- Every worker at every level is responsible for defining vision and values.
- People have the right to say no without fear of punishment.
- Each person takes personal accountability for the success or failure of the organisation.
- People are absolutely honest with each other.

According to Du Brin (1995:2), leadership is “the ability to inspire confidence and support among the people who are needed to achieve organizational goals”.

Akin to Stoner & Freeman (1989:459), one of the common denominators of definitions of leadership is identified by Yukl (1981:3) as the intentional *influence* exerted by the leader over followers. Despite this conformity on the subject researchers differ in their outlook on, for example, influence attempts. Promoters of the perspective that leadership involves the exercise of influence resulting in enthusiastic commitment by followers, differ from those who propose that followers comply willingly or *unwillingly* under the influence of leaders. The other common denominator in leadership definitions is the group phenomenon, entailing the interaction between two or more persons (Janda in Yukl, 1981:3). Rather than define leadership, Yukl (1981:5) advises the use of the various concepts of leadership as a source of various perspectives on a complex, multifaceted phenomenon. Different definitions of leadership can serve different researchers, depending on the purpose or focus of the research project (Campbell, Karmel in Yukl, 1981:5).

To bring to a close the discussion on defining leadership, the following definitions are offered:

- “Leadership in its basic definition is the ability to lead, and this action occurs in direct relationship to a common goal among groups. Leadership can be viewed from a personality perspective whereby the major influence of the leader relies on the ability to induce others to accomplish tasks by means of special traits or characteristics the leader may possess. Leadership can also be viewed from a behavioral aspect being directive, supportive, participative or achievement-oriented” (Northouse in Middlebrooks, 2006:1).
- “... leadership promotes a new direction for a group and it does not have to be associated with an executive position. Anyone with a good idea to champion can show leadership upwards and sideways” (McCrimmon, 2007:1).

Analysis of the definitions shows that, firstly, they concur on that leadership embodies aspects such as motivating or inspiring others, personal interaction between people and the endeavour to achieve goals. Whether the influence is legitimate or illegitimate, whether the goals are shared by the leader and followers or not, and whether the followers willingly or unwillingly pursue the desired goals seems to be irrelevant; in the end the things that the leader wants done, are done. Secondly, it shows that little has changed between the 1970s and the new millennium in defining leadership.

A probing question is, apart from the administrative power (authority) bestowed on a manager due to his/her hierarchical position in an organisation, what is it that leaders possess that persuades other people to be influenced? Some answers to this question are given in Chapter 3 in the discussions on leadership character.

2.3 CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

2.3.1 The Trait Approach

According to Steers, Porter & Bigley (1996:167), Stoner & Freeman (1989:461), Yukl (1981:67) and Shriberg, Shriberg & Lloyd (2002:170), the trait approach was one of the earliest systematic attempts to study leadership. The popular view was that leaders are born, not made. Such persons were labelled as natural leaders, and were supposedly endowed with certain traits not possessed by other people – “they are naturally braver, more aggressive, more decisive, and more articulate than other people” (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:461).

As maintained by Stoner & Freeman (1989: 461), researchers of the trait approach had two outlooks. Firstly they made an effort to compare the traits of individuals who came forward as leaders with the traits of those who did not, and secondly they endeavoured to compare the traits of reputable effective leaders with those of ineffective leaders. Pertaining to the first outlook, House & Beatz (in Stoner &

Freeman, 1989:461) found that leaders as a group were brighter, more extroverted, more self-confident and also tended to be taller; however, it could not be established that individuals who emerged as leaders possess any single compilation of traits that clearly distinguish them from non-leaders. Also see Shriberg *et al* (2002:170) for Gardner's list of leadership traits that "seem to be linked with higher probabilities that a leader in one situation could also lead in another".

Research results of the second outlook (effective leaders vis-à-vis ineffective leaders) also did not prove that certain unique traits can primarily be associated with effective leaders. Even though one study (Ghiselli in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:462) found that traits such as intelligence, initiative and self-assurance could be coupled to high managerial levels and performance, the single most contributing factor to high managerial performance levels was found to be a manager's supervisory abilities. The majority of research results showed that effective leadership depended on how well a leader's traits were matched with the situation they were facing, rather than on a particular set of traits.

Stogdill's second research review, as put forward by Yukl (1981:69), inspired psychologists interested in improving managerial selection to continue to conduct trait research; specifically focusing on the relation of leader traits to leader effectiveness, as opposed to the comparison of leaders to non-leaders – however, Du Brin (1995:53) concludes that there is convincing evidence that leaders possess personal character traits that differ from those of non-leaders. This eventually led to stronger and more consistent research results than Stogdill's first research review, which discouraged academics from conducting trait research, due to the fact that it basically demonstrated that a leader with certain traits could be effective in one situation, but ineffective in a different situation. The second research review gave rise to Stogdill's following trait profile of successful leaders:

"The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and

originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb inter-personal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand" (Yukl, 1981:69).

One of the positive outcomes of Stogdill's research was that the initial notion of the trait approach "that leaders are born, not made", was brought to an end. Yukl (1981:70) maintains that these days it is recognized that certain traits increase the likelihood that leaders will be effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness, and the relative importance of different traits is dependent on the nature of the leadership situation. Another benefit of the trait approach lies in leadership selection. If people are confident that certain traits are crucial for effective leadership, leaders with those traits can be selected; and principles of the trait approach might be used by people who want to prepare for leadership responsibility by seeking opportunities to develop the desired traits (Du Brin, 1995:53).

According to Du Brin (1995:53), the trait approach obviously has shortcomings, one being the lack of information on which traits are absolutely vital in which leadership situations. Too much attention to the trait approach can lead to discriminatory leadership, excluding persons who are not exceptional in some of the desired traits.

2.3.2 The Behavioural Approach

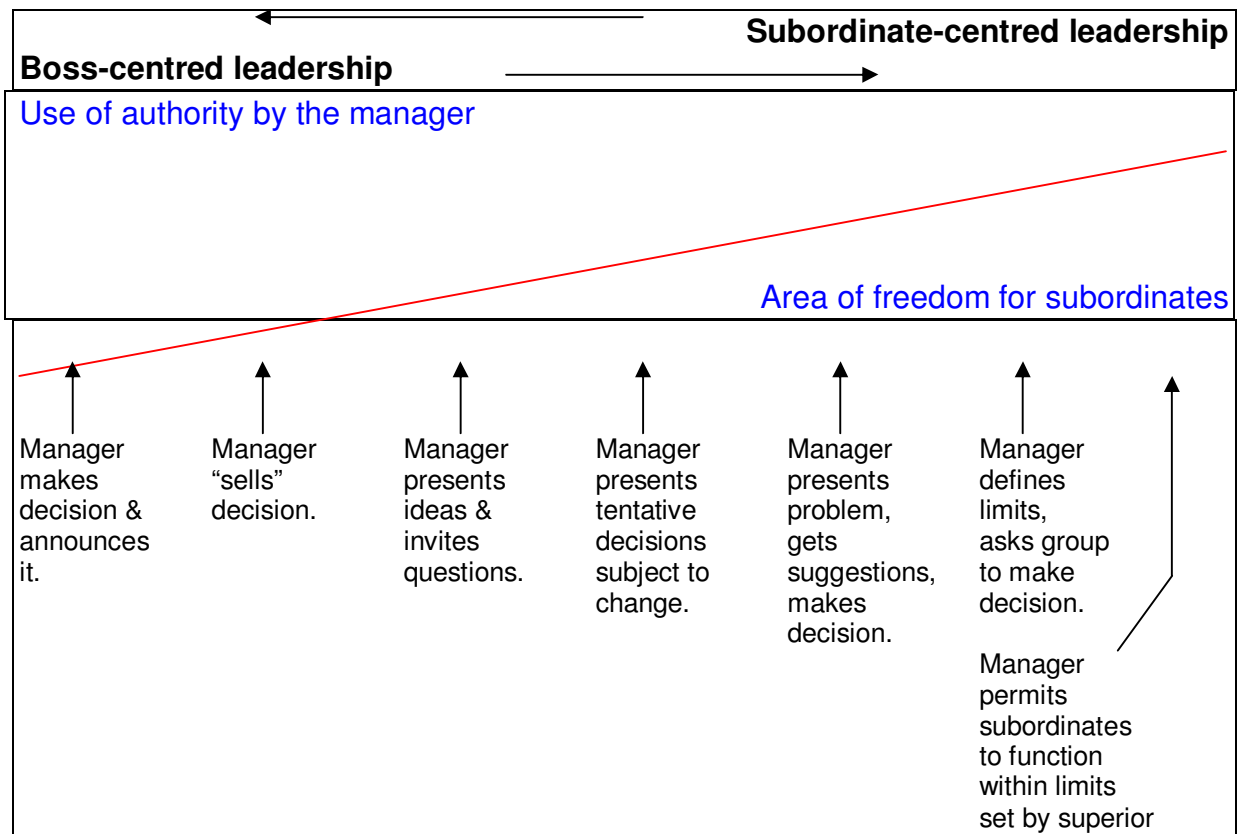
Owing to the initial belief – for example after Stogdill's first research review in 1948 – that leaders do not possess any distinguishing character traits, and the belief that desired leadership traits cannot be developed, researchers turned their attention to what leaders *did*, rather than on what they *were*. This interest in the behaviour of leaders was enhanced by the conviction that, unlike traits, behaviours can be learned (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:462). The study of leaders' behaviour concentrated on two

aspects namely *leadership functions* and *leadership styles*. Stoner & Freeman (1989, 463), describes leadership functions as: “the group maintenance and task related activities that must be performed by the leader, or someone else, for a group to perform effectively”. The task-related functions are typical problem-solving functions and the group maintenance is whatever needs to be done to help the group to operate more smoothly.

Leadership styles are “the various patterns of behavior favored by leaders during the process of directing and influencing workers”. One of two styles – task-orientated or employee-orientated – may be adopted by the leader during the process of directing and influencing subordinates. The close supervision of subordinates to ensure tasks are performed to the satisfaction of the leader is typical of a task-oriented style. In order to reach goals, employee-orientated leaders will make an effort to motivate subordinates, rather than control them; subordinates take part in the decision-making process.

Figure 2.1 is an illustration of the difference between boss-centred leadership (authoritative) and subordinate-centred leadership (participative).

Figure 2.1: CONTINUUM OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR



Source: Tannenbaum & Schmidt in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:464

Reputable academics on leadership (Du Brin, 1995:79-95; Yukl, 1981:105-119; Stoner & Freeman, 1989:466-467; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:171) all refer to the Ohio State University and University of Michigan's research results when expounding the behavioural approach to leadership.

At Ohio State University the two leadership styles that were compared were "initiating structure" and "consideration", which are synonymous to the task-orientated and employee-orientated styles mentioned above. The research showed that leaders who measured high in initiating structures (task-orientated) and low in consideration (employee-orientated) were associated with high employee turnover and grievance rates. On the other hand, leaders who measured high in consideration and low in

initiating structure were associated with high employee satisfaction and low employee turnover rates (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:467; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:173)

An important finding, however, was that subordinates' rating of the effectiveness of their leader was much more dependent on the *situation* in which the leadership style was used, than on the style itself. For example, converse research results were found between commanders in a military environment and non-production managers in large companies.

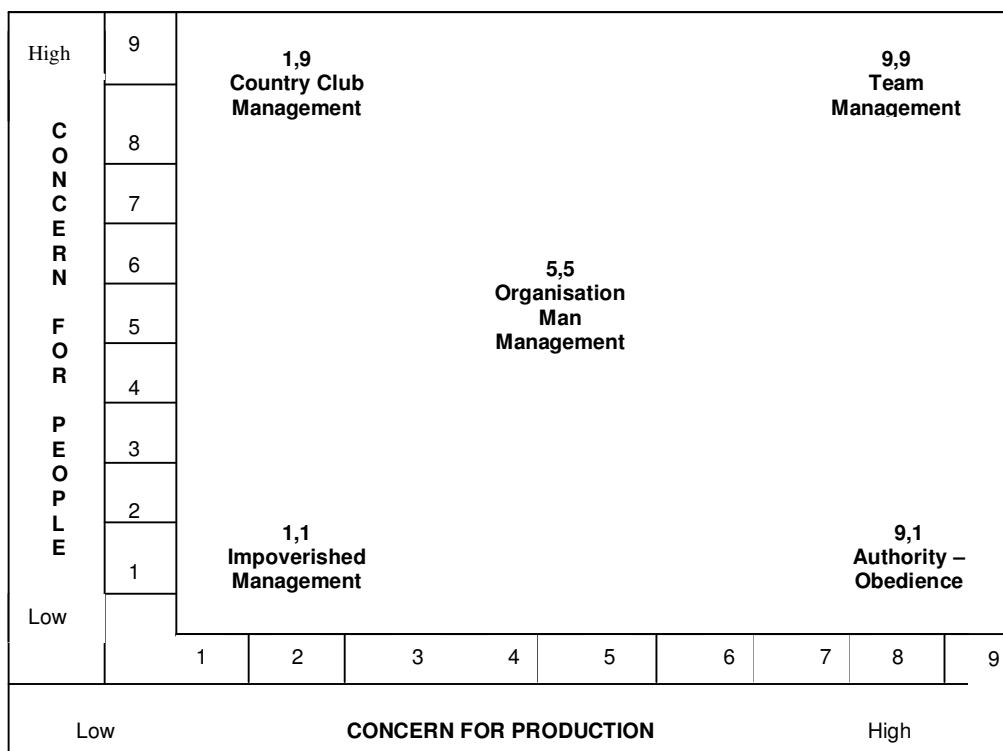
At the University of Michigan (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:467), researchers distinguished between a production-centred and employee-centred leadership style. Not only did they find higher productivity associated with employee-centred leaders, but also, the most effective leaders were associated with the employee-centred style.

One of the outcomes of the Ohio State University and University of Michigan studies was that one of the two styles need not necessarily be preferred over the other; the two styles should rather interact with each other. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:467; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:173) serves as an excellent example of a model of leadership behaviour that is widely used in training.

Figure 2.2 illustrates that Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:467-8; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:173), consists of five different management styles. The first style, impoverished management (style 1,1), is also called *laissez-faire* management due to the leader abdicating his/her leadership role – minimum effort to reach required goals is seen as appropriate. Country club management (style 1,9) denotes attention to the needs of people and a comfortable, friendly work atmosphere and work tempo. Authority-Obedience management (style 9,1) has minimum concern for people and puts a high premium on efficiency in operations. Organisation-Man management (style 5,5) depicts a satisfactory level of worker

morale merged with a satisfactory level of production – a type of middle-of-the-road management style.

Figure 2.2: THE MANAGERIAL GRID



Source: Blake & Mouton (in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:468)

The ultimate management style – high concern for both production and employee satisfaction – is called team management (style 9,9), and in most situations will, according to Blake & Mouton, result in better performance, high employee satisfaction, low absenteeism and low employee turnover.

It is fitting to take heed of Stoner & Freeman's (1989:463) conclusion that research has shown that leadership behaviours appropriate in one situation are not necessarily appropriate in another. For example, a leader that is highly successful in managing workers in a large factory producing vast amounts of a specialized product, might fall short when managing highly creative people such as designers.

2.3.3 The Contingency Approach

Since no single trait common to all effective leaders and no single style effective in all situations could be identified, research shifted towards finding those factors in each situation that influenced the effectiveness of a particular leadership style (Van Dyk & Van Niekerk, 2004:326; Stoner & Freeman, 1989:467).

Stogdill states his view (in Du Brin, 1995:114) on selecting a leader as: “The most effective leaders appear to exhibit a degree of versatility and flexibility that enables them to adapt their behavior to the changing and contradictory demands made on them”. Typical of the contingency approach is that the optimum management technique to attain organisational goals depends on the particular situation or circumstance that the leader might find him/herself in (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:469).

The four most celebrated theories on the contingency approach to leadership are Hersey & Blanchard’s *Situational Model*, Fiedler’s *Contingency Model*, Evans and House’s *Path-Goal Approach*, and Vroom & Yetton and Vroom & Jago’s *Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model* (Du Brin, 1995:121-139; Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479; Yukl, 1981:132-153; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:174-196). Stoner & Freeman’s, (1989:470-479) coherent account of the four theories serves as the source of information for the following discussion.

2.3.3.1 Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Model

Hersey & Blanchard’s Situational Model (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479) maintains that the maturity of subordinates determines which leadership style (task-orientated or employee-orientated) will be the most effective. Maturity is equated to desire for achievement, willingness to accept responsibility, and task-related ability and experience; not age.

The relationship between the leader and subordinates progresses in a life cycle fashion through four phases. In phase one the subordinates have freshly joined the organisation and must still be instructed in their tasks and acquainted with the organisation's rules and procedures. A task-orientated leadership style will be the most effective, because a lack of direction will cause confusion and anxiety among the recruits. Employee-orientated leadership is inappropriate because the employees are not yet regarded as colleagues.

In phase two the new employees begin to master their tasks, but because they are not yet willing or able to accept full responsibility, task-orientated management is still appropriate. As the leader becomes familiar with the subordinates, his/her trust in and support of the subordinates may increase, and the manager may choose to initiate some employee-orientated leadership behaviours.

The third phase demarcates subordinates with increased ability and achievement motivation. They are now actively embarking on seeking greater responsibility. The chances are that the subordinates might be offended by directive leadership behaviour, so the situation now calls for a higher employee-orientated and lower task-orientated leadership style. As subordinates mature onto the fourth phase by demonstrating more confidence, self-direction and experience, the leader can reduce his support, which implies that the most appropriate leadership style will eventually be a combination of low task-orientated and low employee-orientated behaviour (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479).

The success of this model depends on the ability of the leader to be flexible. Managers with inflexible leadership styles will only be effective when faced with situations that complement their style, or when situations can be adjusted to match their style.

2.3.3.2 Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479) believes that most managers are not flexible. If a certain leadership style helped a manager to make a success of his career, he will find it difficult to vary that style. In this case the most appropriate action would be to match the manager with a situation compatible to his leadership style, or to manipulate the situation to suit the manager.

He identified two leadership styles, based on the way in which a manager favourably or unfavourably describes his least preferred co-worker (LPC). If a manager describes his LPC in a relatively favourable manner, he/she will tend to be human relations orientated (employee-orientated). This type of manager regards close and warm personal ties with his/her subordinates as important for effective leadership, and is referred to as a high-LPC manager. Low-LPC managers are identified as those who tend to describe their LPCs in a relatively unfavourable manner. They don't place a high premium on their subordinates' reaction to their leadership style; attaining production goals and getting the job done is the real priority for them (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479).

.

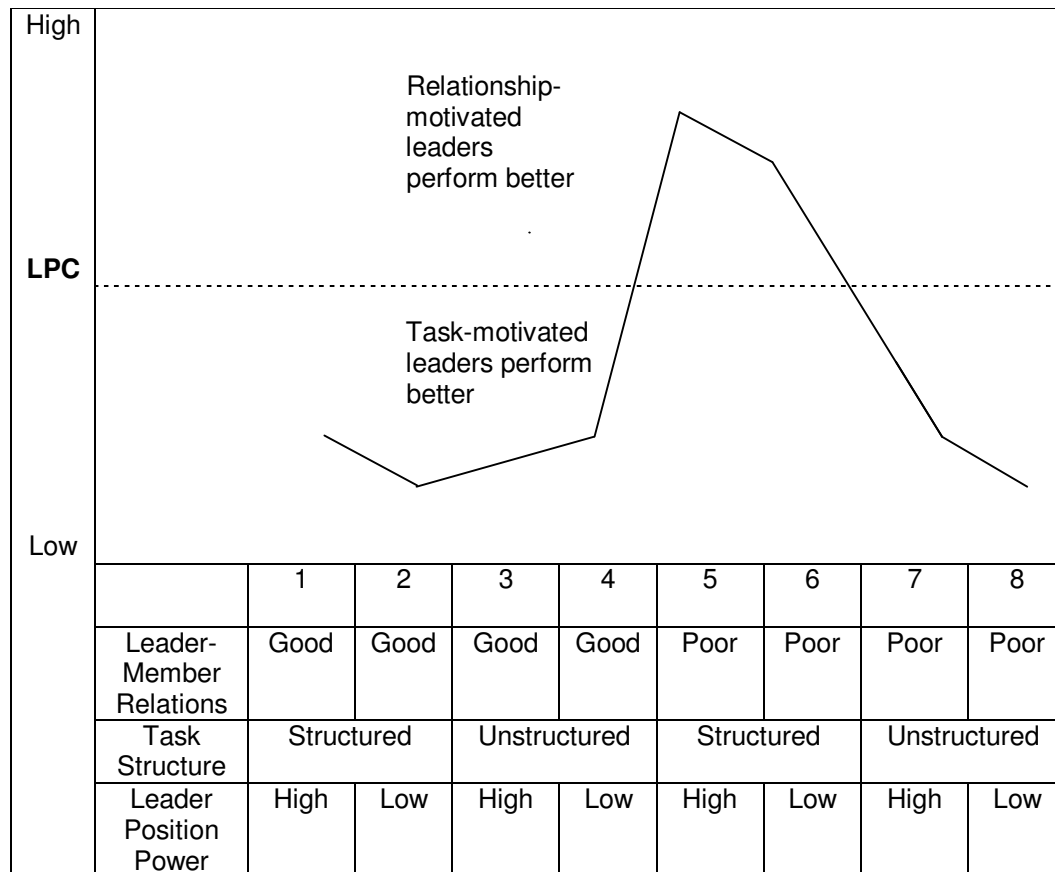
Fiedler recognized three variables that can influence the manager's ability to be effective. The first variable, leader-member relations, has the greatest influence on the manager's power and effectiveness. The quality of the interaction between the leader and the subordinates will determine how heavily the leader has to rely on formal rank and directives to accomplish group projects. The greater the respect of the subordinates for the leader due to reasons of character, personality and the ability of the leader, the less the leader has to rely on formal authority and directives, and the more he/she can lead informally. The opposite holds true for subordinates who have an aversion to their leader – such a leader will have to resort to rank and formal directives to steer subordinates towards achieving organisational goals (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479).

The second most important variable is task structure. If tasks are structured, managers automatically have high power. Step-by-step procedures and clear guidelines for highly structured tasks, and situations where managers can readily refer to rulebooks, provide a high level of authority to the manager. Then again, when tasks are unstructured, with no clear guidelines and the situation is one where group members can more easily disagree with the manager, the manager's power is reduced (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479).

The third variable in the leadership situation is the leader's position power, which is inherent in the formal position the leader holds. As Fiedler puts it, the position as president of a large firm (high position power) carries far more power and authority than that which a chairperson of a fund-raising drive (low-position power) will have over volunteer workers. High position power thus makes it easier for the manager to influence subordinates, whereas low position power complicates the task of the manager (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:470-479).

To conclude his model, Fiedler used combinations of the three variables of the leadership situation (good/poor leader-member relations, structured/unstructured task structure and high/low position power), together with the two leadership styles that are either low-LPC or high-LPC. The model (see Figure 2.3) demonstrates eight possible leadership situations where one of the two leadership styles will be more effective than the other. For example in a leadership situation where there are good leader-member relations, a highly structured task structure and high leader position power, the most appropriate leadership style to match the situation would be a low-LPC style. The same low-LPC leadership style will also be appropriate in a situation where there are poor leader-member relations, an unstructured task structure and low leader position power. Yukl (1981:168) summarizes the model by saying that leaders with high LPC scores are more effective in moderately favourable situations, whereas leaders with low LPC scores are more effective in situations that are either very favourable or very unfavourable.

Figure 2.3: HOW THE STYLE OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP VARIES WITH THE SITUATION



Source: Fred Fiedler & Martin Chemers (in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:474)

The validity of Fiedler's Model has been questioned by critics such as Stinson & Tracy, Graen, Orris, Alvares and Bungard (in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:475). Yukl (1981:136) adds to this by noting that the absence of intervening variables in the model results in it being unable to explain why low-LPC leaders are more effective in some situations and high-LPC leaders are more effective in other situations. However, according to Stoner & Freeman, (1989:475), some value can be gained by using the model in managerial training circumstances to show how situational variables can be changed to match a leadership style, rather than adjusting the style to match the situation.

2.3.3.3 The Path-Goal Approach

Yukl (1981:144) maintains that Evans and House (individually) developed the path-goal theory of leadership to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. The concept is further clarified by Stoner & Freeman, (1989:475), who argue that the model is based on the premise that an individual's motivation depends on his/her expectation of reward and the attractiveness of the reward, with the leader being the source of rewards.

This ability of a manager to provide rewards, together with clarifying what subordinates must do to earn them, is, according to Evans (in Yukl, 1981:144), the most important tool at a manager's disposal to influence subordinates' behaviour. The availability of rewards relates to the "goal" in the model, and what the subordinates must do to earn them relates to the "path". Evans' (in Yukl, 1981:144) contribution to the model further holds that different leadership styles will bring about different types of rewards and different perceptions by subordinates of what must be done to earn those rewards. Employee-orientated managers will typically offer a wide range of rewards, going beyond pay and promotion to include support, encouragement, security and respect, as well as acknowledgement of individual differences between subordinates. A task-orientated manager, on the other hand, will offer a narrower range of rewards with less concern for individual differences between subordinates. This should not necessarily be made out as negative, because task-orientated managers are supposedly better at linking subordinates' performance to rewards than employee orientated managers. The subordinates of task-orientated managers will thus know exactly what level of performance is required for a certain level (or worth) of rewards. Evans (in Yukl, 1981:144) maintains that the most effective leadership style to motivate subordinates depends on the type of rewards that subordinates value most.

House (in Yukl, 1981:145), expanded on Evans' thoughts by introducing two contingency variables in the model to assist in determining the most effective leadership style: the *personal characteristics of subordinates* and the *environmental pressures and demands in the workplace*. To augment his viewpoint that the personal characteristics of subordinates is one of the determinants of which leadership style will be the most effective, House (in Yukl, 1981:145) explains that individuals who believe their behaviour affects the environment will prefer a participatory leader. Individuals who believe events occur because of luck or fate are more inclined to favour an authoritarian leadership style.

To clarify the variable *environmental pressures and demands in the workplace*, House (in Yukl, 1981:145) offers the following environmental factors as determinants of subordinates' preferred leadership style:

- ***The nature of subordinates' tasks.*** An individual performing a structured or repetitive task such as truck loading usually knows exactly what needs to be done, and will therefore be inclined to find a directive leadership style redundant. In the same way, when a task is highly satisfying in itself, motivational interventions by the manager will come across as superfluous. Then again, when a task is unpleasant, supportive interventions by the manager may add to the subordinate's satisfaction and motivation.
- ***The organisation's formal authority system.*** Subordinates are normally conversant with which actions are likely to be rewarded and which might be met with disapproval. For example, performing well without exceeding the organisation's budget may lead to rewards, as opposed to exceeding the budget.
- ***The subordinate's work group.*** The nature of inter-personal relations within a work group may also influence the leadership style. For instance, a

supportive, understanding style will probably be the most applicable for groups that are not cohesive.

According to Du Brin (1995:130), one of the contributions of the path-goal theory is that it highlights the importance of achievement-orientated leadership. Achievement orientated leadership is characterized by the leader setting challenging goals and high expectations for team members, while group members are expected to assume responsibility. A further contribution of the theory is that it attempts to explain *why* a particular leadership style is more effective in one situation than in another, and it supports the notion that flexibility in responding to situational influences is both possible and desirable (Stoner & Freeman (1989:476). However, Du Brin (1995:130) points out that the theory contains so many nuances and complexities that it has attracted little interest from managers.

2.3.3.4 The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model: When to Involve Subordinates

The Vroom-Jago Model of situational leadership is an attempt by Victor Vroom and Arthur Jago to further refine the original Vroom-Yetton Model developed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton in 1973 (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996:449; Steers *et al*, 1996:177).

The Vroom-Yetton Model was developed to address the perceived shortcoming of the path-goal theory, namely its failure to help managers to decide when and to what extent subordinates should be involved in solving a particular problem. It identified the following five leadership styles and categorized them from authoritarian approaches (A1, A2) and consultative (C1, C2), to fully participative (G2):

- **A1** managers solve the problem or make the decisions themselves, using information available at that time.

- **A2** managers obtain the necessary information from subordinates, and then decide on the solution to the problem themselves. The role played by subordinates is no more than to provide the necessary information to managers. They do not participate in generating or evaluating alternative solutions to the problem.
- **C1** managers share the problem with relevant subordinates individually and get their inputs without bringing them together as a group. The managers then make the decisions that do not necessarily reflect the subordinates' inputs.
- **C2** managers share the problem with individuals as a group, collectively obtaining their inputs. Then the managers once again make decisions that do not necessarily reflect the subordinates' inputs.
- **G2** managers share the problem with individuals as a group. Together they generate and evaluate alternatives and endeavour to reach consensus on solutions to problems. The managers do not try to influence the group, and they accept and implement any solution that has the support of the entire group.

By finding feasible answers to a set of questions such as the following, managers are assisted in determining which leadership style will be the most appropriate in a particular situation:

- Do managers have enough information or skills available to solve the problem on their own? If not, the A1 style, where they make the decisions themselves, will be inappropriate.
- Do managers need to make a high quality decision that their subordinates are likely to disagree with? If so, the G2 style, where they seek the consensus of the group, will be inappropriate. Giving up authority to make the final decision

is not advised in this scenario, because the problem requires a decision with a certain objective quality.

- Is the problem structured? Do the managers know what information they need and where to get it? If not, styles such as C2 and G2, which allow for considerable group interaction, will be preferable. The other styles would either hinder management from getting the proper information, or supply the information in an inefficient manner.
- Is acceptance by the group critical for the success of the decision? If so, styles A1 and A2 should be avoided, as they involve subordinates the least.
- If acceptance of the decision is important, are the subordinates likely to disagree among themselves about which is the best solution? If so, then styles C2 and G2 (group decision making), are the preferred options. Only within the group can differences between subordinates be discussed openly and ultimately be resolved. The other styles might leave a number of subordinates dissatisfied with the decision.

Depending on the nature of the problem, more than one of the leadership styles may be appropriate, called the “feasible set of alternatives” by Vroom & Yetton. If there are feasible choices, and both decision quality and acceptance by the group have been taken into account, then managers may freely choose between the feasible leadership styles. To assist in choosing within a feasible set, Vroom & Yetton distinguish between situations which call for either “time-efficient” decision styles or “time-investment” decision styles.

- ***Time efficient*** or authoritarian styles will be appropriate when decisions must be made quickly or time must be saved. The benefits of such decisions are noticeable in the short run in the form of quicker, more efficient actions.

- **Time investment** or participative styles are recommended when managers wish to develop the subordinates' knowledge and decision-making skills. The benefits of such decisions materialize in the longer run, in the form of more effective subordinates and possibly better working relationships.

In 1988, Vroom & Jago (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996:452; Steers *et al*, 1996:177) extended the Vroom-Yetton Model by formulating the overall effectiveness of leadership as a function of “the effectiveness of decisions minus the cost of making the decisions plus the value realized in developing people’s abilities by means of committed decision making”. This formula clarifies that even if effective decisions are made, but the journey to come to the decision is a costly one, or the abilities of others are not developed by the decision, then the overall leadership in the situation cannot be viewed as effective. The organisation will then in effect be drained of human capital.

According to Steers *et al* (1996:178), an evaluation of the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model by means of empirical research (e.g. Field, Wedley & Hayward, 1989; Field, Reed & Louviere, 1990) tends to be rather supportive. However, some of the limitations that are noted are that the model treats the decision-making process as the outcome of a single, discrete episode, whereas important decisions typically require multiple meetings with a variety of different groups at different times and with changing environmental circumstances (Yukl in Steers *et al*, 1996:179). The model also erroneously assumes that all leaders are sufficiently skilled to use each of the decision-making procedures (Crouch & Yetton, 1987, in Steers *et al*, 1996:179). Ivancevich & Matteson (1996:454) note that the model fails to take changing circumstances, technological advances and international competition into account, but concludes that no model can cope with every contingency a leader might face.

Du Brin’s (1995:139) conclusive criticism of the contingency approach to leadership is quoted as “...that it concerns management rather than true leadership. Contingency theories and models provide supervisors and middle managers precise

guidelines for selecting an appropriate leadership style. Yet they have little to do with inspiring and influencing others, and bringing about important changes. The various models deal more with conducting transactions with group members than with inspiration and influence.” Cronin (in Van Dyk & Van Niekerk, 2004:326) is of the opinion that it is not appropriate to adopt one leadership style to cover all situations or all followers. That is where the value of the contingency approach is made real; in recognizing the importance of *varied* situations and circumstances in which *different* managers must lead their *diverse* subordinates.

2.3.4 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Over centuries, the notion that leadership was all about the leader being the absolute ruler, has evolved to the present day’s recognition of more and more equality between leaders and followers. The disparity between the power and role of the leader and that of the followers has gradually diminished over time (McCauley, Moxley & Van Velsor, 1998:407). The first of two approaches to study this phenomenon in the field of leadership studies – as result of the critique against the contingency approach, but in recognition of the importance of situational factors – is called transactional leadership; the second is transformational leadership. Also see Shriberg *et al* (2002:208) and Kouzes & Posner (2003:153) for their views on transactional and transformational leadership.

To distinguish between transactional and transformational leadership, the following explanations are offered:

2.3.4.1 Transactional Leadership

According to Bass (1998:6), “transactional leadership occurs when leaders reward or discipline followers depending on the adequacy of the followers’ performances”. Both transactional and transformational approaches to leadership emphasize the phenomenon of leader-follower relations, but according to Burns (1979:19) the

interaction between leaders and followers takes a distinct form in each of the approaches. Transactional leadership “occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things”. The exchange can be trades in goods, psychological benefits or political votes. Stoner & Freeman (1989:480) denote transactional leaders to “determine what subordinates need to do to achieve objectives, classify those requirements, and help subordinates become confident that they can reach their objectives”. The transactional approach is thus adequate for acceptable success, but as Bass (in Stoner & Freeman, 1989:481)) assert, full effectiveness is reached by leaders who use their personal vision and energy to inspire their followers. Du Brin (1995:64) believes transactional leaders to be “managers who mostly carry on transactions with people, such as taking care of administrative work and offering rewards for good performance”.

2.3.4.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders are individuals who have exceptional impact on their organisations, and they inspire followers through their personal vision and energy (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:480). McCauley *et al* (1998:407) are of the opinion that transformational leadership embraces the concept of creating in people the inner commitment to social goals, and transforming a person’s self-interest into a larger social concern. According to Burns (1979:20), leadership becomes transforming when “one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality”. This is what is meant by the different forms of leader-follower relations to be found in transactional and transformational leadership respectively – the transcending to higher levels of commitment by both leaders and followers (transformational leadership), as opposed to operating and interacting on a level that is adequate for effective performance (transactional leadership).

Based on the findings of a series of surveys and on clinical and case evidence, Bass (in Steers *et al*, 1996:630) identified typical characteristics of transactional and

transformational leaders, which further distinguishes between the two leadership styles:

- ***Transactional Leadership***

Contingent Reward. Exchanges of rewards for efforts are contracted, rewards are promised for good performance and accomplishments are recognised.

Management by Exception (active). Deviations from rules and standards are watched and searched for, and then corrective actions are taken.

Management by Exception (passive). Interventions only take place if standards are not met.

Laissez-Faire. Making of decisions are avoided and responsibilities are abdicated.

- ***Transformational Leadership***

Charisma. Vision and sense of mission are provided, pride is instilled, and respect and trust are gained.

Inspiration. High expectations are communicated, symbols to focus efforts are used, and important purposes are expressed in simple ways.

Intellectual Stimulation. Intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving are promoted.

Individualized Consideration. Personal attention is given, each employee is treated individually, coaching takes place and advice is given.

It is mentioned by Bass and Avolio (in Grint, 1997:202), that by adding transformational leadership to the base transactional styles such as the models proposed by Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid and Hersey & Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, followers are more motivated, productive and satisfied. Their research, based on their Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire, which comprises the four above-mentioned characteristics of transformational leadership (charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration), verifies that "leaders rated higher by followers on transformational leadership behaviours generate greater effort, performance and satisfaction".

Du Brin's (1995:70) account of Bass' research results confirms that "leaders who were described as transformational were judged to be more effective than those described as transactional". It was found that transformational leaders have better relations with their superiors, or as Krishnan (2001:1) puts it, "higher-ups", and that organisations where transactional leadership is judged to be the primary style are perceived as less effective. Subordinates of leaders judged to be transformational also reported their respective organisational units to be more effective, and such leaders were also appraised well by their superiors.

It appears that comparative research on transactional and transformational leadership tends to elevate transformational leadership a cut above transactional leadership in terms of overall organisational effectiveness. However, Tucker (in Du Brin, 1995:73) warns that transformational leaders (often referred to as charismatic leaders) "...are experts at promising Utopia. Since perfection is the end, often the most heinous actions can be tolerated as seemingly necessary means to that end". Du Brin's (1995:73) critique is that if transformational leaders are unethical, they can "lead their organizations toward illegal and immoral ends". Because of their exceptional ability to inspire followers, subordinates tend to blindly follow charismatic leaders, irrespective of the path upon which they are being led. If transformational leaders are not sensitive towards their social responsibility ("obligation to groups in

society other than owners or stockholders and beyond that prescribed by law or contract”), they are abusing their gift of charisma.

Another apprehension is the murkiness surrounding the concepts of transformational (charismatic) and transactional leadership, as several non-charismatic leaders are also effective.

2.4 SUMMARY

The congruent components of researchers’ definitions for *leadership* prove to be the motivation or inspiring of others, personal interaction between people and the endeavour to reach goals. Although distinctions can be made in different leadership situations on the legitimacy or illegitimacy of leaders’ influence on others, and whether goals are shared by leaders and followers or not, and whether followers willingly or unwillingly pursue goals; in the end the things that the leader wants to be done, are done.

Different schools of thought on, or approaches to, leadership developed as a result of researchers’ perceived shortcomings of other models of leadership. However, all things considered, no single approach or model proved to be the ultimate solution for the leadership puzzle. Correspondingly, no single approach was proved to be worthless or inoperative.

Many of the same leadership traits promoted by Plato, Machiavelli, Sun Tzu and others in the classical times are as relevant today as they were then. Although it can not be guaranteed that certain leadership traits will ensure effectiveness, and the fact that it is difficult to determine which traits are absolutely vital in which leadership situation, these days it is recognised that certain traits increase the likelihood that leaders will be effective. As will be seen later in this research, scholars of military leadership are keen to identify certain desired traits of military leaders.

The behavioural models focus on what people do, rather than what they are. Attention was drawn to various leadership styles, and culminated in the realization that the most effective leadership style will depend on the specific situation in which the leader operates. This gave rise to the contingency approach to leadership. Research shifted towards finding those factors in each situation that influenced the effectiveness of a particular leadership style. The value of contingency models lies in recognizing the importance of *varied* situations and circumstances in which *different* managers must lead their *diverse* subordinates.

Despite the fact that contingency models provide supervisors and middle managers with precise guidelines for selecting an appropriate leadership style, they were found to deal more with conducting transactions with group members, and were lacking in inspiring and influencing subordinates. This inspired viewpoints on the virtues of transformational leadership as opposed to transactional leadership. Charismatic or transformational leaders have the ability to inspire followers to rise with them to higher levels of motivation and morality – higher than what is adequate. A concern, however, is that because of their exceptional ability to inspire followers, subordinates tend to blindly follow charismatic leaders, irrespective of the path upon which they are being led. If transformational leaders are not sensitive towards their social responsibility, they could become guilty of abusing their gift of charisma.

In the next chapter the focus will shift from leadership as a concept to the leader as a person. Important questions concerning the nature of leaders will be answered, and rather than focussing on how leaders act, the centre of attention will be on who they are.

CHAPTER 3

THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF A LEADER: LEADERSHIP CHARACTER

“This is the final test of a gentleman: his respect for those who can be of no possible value to him.”

William Lyon Phelps

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It is made clear in Chapter 2 that no single approach or model proved to be the ultimate solution for the leadership puzzle. Correspondingly, no single approach was proved to be worthless or inoperative.

Leadership character determines who the leader is, as opposed to a leadership style that determines what a leader does. Chapter 2 explained leadership as a concept in itself, whereas this chapter moves towards the leader as a person. Leadership can be viewed as the overarching concept that includes definitions of leadership, approaches to leadership styles and leadership behaviours, as well as leadership character and the development thereof; in other words what leadership is. Leadership character, as part of leadership, implies the inner make-up of the leader as a person; in other words who the leader is. To develop leadership character, one should identify the elements in the make-up of a leader, because the development of those elements will culminate in the development of leadership character.

This chapter will look into those aspects that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. The long standing question of whether leaders are born or made will be examined to determine whether leadership is purely a consequence of genetics, or whether it is proven that it can be nurtured. This will be followed by distinguishing between leadership and management, as it is virtually a given that management skills can be

taught and learned, but whether this holds true for leadership character needs to be investigated.

The next line of thought is on the make-up of leaders. Those characteristics that can be identified as the building blocks of a leader and which can be developed with appropriate interventions. This leads to dealing with character as one of the key ingredients in the make-up of a leader. The difference between personality and character is emphasized, and appropriately, in conclusion, the contemporary matter of emotional intelligence is offered.

3.2 THE DISTINCTIVENESS OF LEADERS

There are distinct differences between leaders and non-leaders. A leader is willing to accept the added responsibilities of decision making, accountability and having others depend on his/her judgement, even if there is no pecuniary reward attached to the additional burden of having to lead others. There is something in a leader's make-up which makes him/her prefer to lead rather than be led. The following paragraphs examine this problematic issue of what makes leaders different from non-leaders.

3.2.1 The Debate on whether Leaders are Born or Made

Academics are forever debating whether leadership can be learned (developed) or not – are leaders born or made? McCauley *et al* (1998:5) argue that leadership capacity shares its roots with genetics, but early childhood development and adult experience complete the concept. They are assured by their research and experience that “adults can develop the important capacities that facilitate their leadership effectiveness” (McCauley *et al*, 1998:5).

Kotter (in Shriberg, Lloyd, Shriberg & Williamson, 1997:28) also speculates whether leadership is inherited or learned. He eventually comes to the conclusion that

management skills can be taught and learned, but that consensus has yet to be reached on whether leadership can be learned.

Terry (1993:253) states that "...leadership can neither be taught nor learned – it is *experienced*". The anomaly of this statement is that he explains that reflection on practice is a well-tested teaching method, and that the contemplation of real-life leadership experiences is actually the teaching of leadership (Terry, 1993:217).

Green is cited in Krass (1998:4) as not to "particularly subscribe to the theory that there are natural, born leaders". However, he falls short of explaining how he perceives leadership to be learned. In consequence, he attributes the ability to lead and inspire others more to instinct than to premeditation. He alleges the innate character and personality of the leader to be imperative determinants of the quality of leadership. Green ascribes the *learned* part of leadership to everyday life experiences, such as his early student experiences at Suffield Academy, where he discovered that teachers' positive remarks as a reward for hard work made him feel proud and accomplished, which probably contributed to the high standards set by him – the experience augmented his already established character.

Kouzes & Posner (2003:385) consider the notion that leadership is reserved for only a few as an insidious myth. In their words, "leadership is not a place, it's not a gene, and it's not a secret code that can't be deciphered by ordinary people". They also denounce the idea that leadership is associated with position – a high position in an organisation does not automatically make one a leader, and a lower position does not necessarily disqualify anyone from becoming a leader.

The myths where leadership is put forward as a set of innate personality characteristics which can't be learned, stand in the way of focussed efforts to develop leaders. Leadership is an "observable set of skills and abilities", and the same assumption that underlies *management* as a learnable concept, is similarly applicable to leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2003:388).

Consistent with other researchers (Green in Krass, 1998; McCauley *et al*, 1998; Terry, 1993), Kouzes & Posner (2003:387) deem learning from experience to be integral in the process of learning to become a leader – that is learning from all of life's experiences, and not only what is learned in formal classrooms and workshops.

“Whether they [leaders] are born or made is a crucial point, because if we believe leadership is a set of traits we are born with or without, then we do not have to take responsibility, we can just blame our ancestors.” This statement is made by Hunter (2004:42), and he adds to it by asserting his conviction – after studying hundreds of managers developing into effective leaders – that leadership is a skill or ability which can be acquired or developed through education and application.

Shriberg, Shriberg & Lloyd (2002:19) put it that “it is now very rare to find an individual who believes in a strictly *nature* (leaders are born) or a strictly *nurture* (leaders are made) perspective”. They argue that studies on identical (monozygotic) twins versus fraternal (dizygotic) twins supply considerable evidence that both physiology *and* environmental influences play important roles in human development. Research outcomes confirmed that there is higher concordance (the trait is present in both twins) with regards to certain diseases in identical twins. This supports the nature perspective, since identical twins are genetically identical. However, the fact that all personality traits are not distributed evenly in identical twins – sometimes they differ in significant ways – supports the nurture perspective in human development.

Another example given is the difference in contemporary approaches to the treatment of depression. Some professionals believe it is essentially a biological condition generically inherited and will treat it medically (nature approach), while others consider it to be the result of environmental influences (nurture approach) and will apply remedial therapy from that angle. If one accepts the importance of both approaches (nature and nurture), then a combination of the above-mentioned treatments would be the most appropriate (Shriberg *et al*, 2002:19).

Considering that both conceptions – whether leaders are born, not made, or that leadership can be learned – are based on assumptions, and the fact that management is commonly believed to be learnable (even though the teaching of management is also based on the assumption that management can be learned), it seems sound to argue that leaders do possess certain innate characteristics, and that certain qualities and skills that distinguish effective leaders from the rest can be developed or learned.

Methods to develop management skills will differ from those used to develop leadership character. To further look into the possibility of developing leadership character, and to do away with the common mistake of equating leadership with management, the following section distinguishes between leadership and management.

3.2.2 The Difference between Leaders and Managers

Management is defined by Stoner & Freeman (1989:3) as “the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the work of organization members and of using all available organizational resources to reach stated organizational goals”. This typical definition of management, which depicts leadership as a subset of management, is what prompts academics such as Shriberg & Kloppenborg (in Shriberg *et al*, 2002:39) to raise the question of whether this (the portraying of leadership as secondary to management) is appropriate. They uphold the position that although leadership can be viewed as one of the building blocks of management, a good portion of leadership should be considered to be separate and distinct from management. They maintain that an effective leader may be a good or a poor manager, just as an effective manager may be a good or a poor leader. Table 3.1 accentuates their perceived differences between leaders and managers.

Hunter (2004:32) is also adamant that leadership is not management. According to him, management concerns the things people in senior positions *do* (planning, budgeting, organising), whereas leadership is about who people *are* (character). Consistent with Shriberg *et al* (2002:39), he states that good managers (unlike good leaders) do not necessarily have the ability to inspire others to do great things. He equates managers with technical and task-orientated skills and knowledge, whereas leaders are associated with “influencing people to contribute their hearts, minds, spirits, creativity, and excellence and to give their all for their team” (Hunter, 2004:33).

Table 3.1: DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN MANAGERS AND LEADERS

Activity	Managers	Leaders
Creating an agenda	Planning and budgeting. Establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results: allocating the resources necessary to make those needed results happen	Establishing direction. Developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision.
Developing a human network for achieving the agenda	Organising and staffing. Establishing some structure for accomplishing plan requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation.	Aligning people. Communicating the direction by words and deeds to all whose cooperation may be needed to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies and accept their validity.
Executing plans	Controlling and problem solving. Monitoring results vs plan in some detail, identifying deviations, and then planning and organising to solve these problems.	Motivating and inspiring. Energising people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs
Outcomes	Produces a degree of predictability and order and has the potential to consistently produce key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g. for customers, always being on time, for stockholders, being on budget).	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree and has the potential to produce extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive).

Source: Kotter in Shriberg *et al*, 2002:40

A further difference between leaders and managers is stated by Zaleznik (2004:74) as follows: “Managers embrace process, seek stability and control, and instinctively try to resolve problems quickly – sometimes before they fully understand a problem’s

significance. Leaders, in contrast, tolerate chaos and lack of structure and are willing to delay closure in order to understand the issues more fully.” He further argued that leaders (in this context) have a good deal more in common with artists, scientists, and other creative intellectuals, than with managers.

Zaleznik (2004:75) identified some components that illustrate his perception on the difference between leaders and managers:

- ***Manager vs. Leader Focus.*** The manager is essentially a problem solver, irrespective of whether his attention is on goals, resources, organisation, structures or people. Managers continually identify problems, and then seek the best way to solve them. Leadership implies simply directing affairs – less attention is given to nitty-gritty matters.
- ***Attitudes Towards Goals.*** Managerial goals tend to materialize out of necessities and not out of desires. Managers are therefore inclined to demonstrate impersonal and passive attitudes towards goals. Leaders, on the other hand, are active instead of reactive in their attitudes towards goals. As a case in point, Zaleznik (2004:76) compared one of General Motors’ (managerial attitude) earlier goal statements regarding product development with that of Polaroid (leader attitude). General Motors’ statement showed their inclination to react to consumers needs rather than to shape new desires in their customer base (“...*we must design ... cars that our customers want to buy*”). In contrast, Polaroid took the bold step of developing the Polaroid camera (the first camera that also develops pictures), and by doing so awakened new consumer desires. Leaders demonstrate a personal and active attitude towards goals; they shape ideas instead of responding to them.

3.2.3 What Leaders are Not

A different approach in an attempt to distinguish leaders from non-leaders is to determine which ingredients should supposedly be absent in the make-up of a leader:

- ***Leaders don't need imagination.*** In contrast to Hunter (2004:33) and Zaleznik (2004:74), Levicki (1998:190) argues that leaders will be more effective if they lack imagination. This sounds bizarre, but the explanation of his viewpoint is that imagination is a trait which is normally coupled with youth, and most leaders will have enough young managers with bright ideas to assist them. He elaborates on this by explaining that the objectivity of the leader can be thwarted by his creativity for the reason that "imaginative skills tend to be associated with passion, while leadership requires dispassion and objective judgement to choose the best idea" (from more than one). This is easier said than done if the leader's idea is one of the many to choose from. The ability of leaders to make quality judgements is therefore more sought after than imagination.
- ***Anger complicates the issue.*** Apart from anger being a useless emotion, it also obstructs dispassionate and objective judgement (Levicki, 1998:193). A further unconstructive consequence of adding anger to a situation is that people are inclined to be frightened and intimidated, which in turn weakens their courage and interferes with their imagination and ability to think straight. Anger, and any other extreme emotionality, are enemies of effective leadership.
- ***Leadership is not equated to positional power.*** Hunter (2004:34) is of the opinion that one does not need to be a boss to be a leader. Synonymous with the definitions of leadership covered in Chapter 2, he identifies the ability to influence others as an integral part of the definition. He maintains that one

need not be in charge of others to be able to influence them. He observed that a highly successful company at the time of his research, the United States based airline company, Southwest, encouraged *all* its members to take leadership responsibility (in the sense of influencing others to the advantage of the organisation).

In conclusion, there appears to be evidence that leaders can be distinguished from non-leaders, but that the privilege of being a leader is not reserved for a few with the appropriate genes. The distinguishable building blocks of leadership can be identified in most people and further developed to produce effective leaders. This is the focus of the following section; determining the internal make-up of leaders – those elements that can be identified and further developed.

3.3 THE INNER MAKE-UP OF LEADERS

“Values, characteristics and attitudes” (Shriberg *et al*, 2002:171), “traits, motives and characteristics” (Du Brin, 1995:30), “traits, skills and characteristics” (Levicki, 1998:189), “values (personal traits or characteristics)” (Kouzes & Posner, 2003:24), “necessary qualities” (Krass, 1998:1). These are all catch phrases used by reputable authors in their attempts to clarify the elements present in the inner make-up of a leader – those identifiable characteristics that can be used to develop questionnaires for empirical, scientific tests in endeavours to explain what the inner disposition of a leader is.

3.3.1 Clarification of Concepts

The different meanings given to, and perceptions of, similar concepts can be confusing. Clark’s (2000:3) view resembles the researcher’s perception and use of certain concepts, and the following should serve as a guideline to the meaning given to these concepts:

- **Character** – the disposition of a person, made up of beliefs, values, skills and character traits. Hunter (2004:49) expands on this by saying that “character is our moral maturity and commitment to doing the right thing regardless of the personal costs. ...it involves the will to respond to stimuli according to values and principles rather than to appetites, urges, whims, or impulses”. Clough (in Shriberg *et al*, 2002:89) refers to Trine when he associates leadership character with the result of one’s thoughts, actions or behaviours and habits. He explains thoughts to be made up of assumptions, beliefs and values (similar to Clark’s (2000) view on character) and concludes that repeated habits eventually form one’s character.
- **Beliefs** – are the deep rooted beliefs that a person holds dear. They could be the assumptions or convictions that one holds with regards to people, concepts or things. What one believes about life, death, religion, what is good and what is bad.
- **Values** – are attitudes about the worth of people, concepts or things. One might value a certain car, home, friendship, personal comfort or relative. These are important, because they influence a person’s behaviour when weighing the importance of alternatives. An example would be valuing friends more than privacy.
- **Skills** – are the knowledge and abilities one gains throughout life. Some skills come naturally, while others come only by devoted study and practice. Being efficient in communication, decision-making and negotiating are typical skills required in the leadership and management fields.
- **Character traits** – are distinguishing qualities or characteristics that differentiate one person from another. Typical examples of character traits that are crucial for military leaders are courage (physical and moral), confidence, initiative and integrity.

If the building blocks of character are a combination of a person's beliefs, values, skills, and character traits, the assumption is that the development of any of the building blocks of character should have a positive influence on the development of a young military leader.

3.3.2. The Desired Character Traits of a Leader

Character traits form an important part of leadership in military environments, as a soldier would not want to be led, and a country not want to be served or defended, by an officer who is an insecure coward with no integrity.

Academics on leadership, and especially military leadership (Downes, 1991; Mullin in Shriberg *et al*, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2003); are outspoken in what they believe to be the desired character traits of leaders. Mullin (in Shriberg *et al*, 2002) based his list of desired character traits on a United States Marine Corps doctrine, depicted by a general in the corps, Krulak (1998:1), in his explanation of effective leadership.

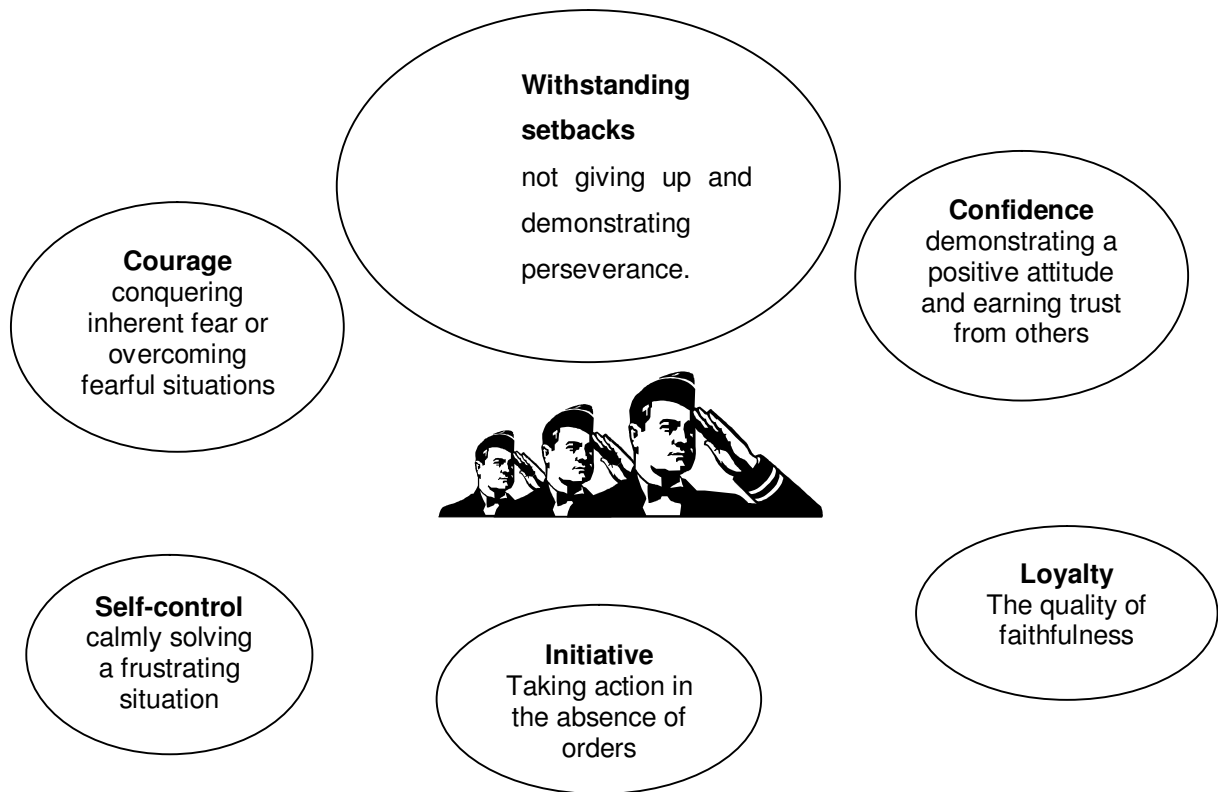
Table 3.2 indicates some of the various authors' conceptions of the typical character traits of leaders, in alphabetical order.

Table 3.2: TYPICAL CHARACTER TRAITS OF LEADERS

Downes (1991)	Mullin in Shriberg <i>et al</i> (2002)	Du Brin (1995)	Kouzes & Posner (2003)
Accepting advice and criticism	Bearing	Assertiveness	Ambitious
Confidence	Courage	Courage	Broad-minded
Loyalty	Decisiveness	Credibility	Caring
Physical bearing and conduct	Dependability	Emotional stability	Competent
Physical and moral courage	Endurance	Empathy	Cooperative
Self-control	Enthusiasm	Enthusiasm	Courageous
Selfless service	Initiative	Flexibility	Dependable
Withstanding setbacks	Integrity	Honesty	Determined
	Judgement	Initiative	Fair-minded
	Justice	Integrity	Forward-looking
	Knowledge	Internal locus of control	Honest
	Loyalty	Resiliency	Imaginative
	Tact	Self-objectivity	Independent
	Unselfishness	Sense of humour	Inspiring
		Tolerance for frustration	Intelligent
			Loyal
			Mature
			Self-controlled
			Straightforward
			Supportive

There are many ways in which some of the character traits put forward by Downes (1991:128), Mullin in Shriberg *et al* (2002:136), Kouzes & Posner (2003:25) and Du Brin (1995:29) can manifest themselves. Figure 3.1 illustrates the meaning of some character traits.

Figure 3.1: CHARACTER TRAITS AND THEIR MEANING



Kouzes & Posner's (2003:24) research on character traits included a survey of more than seventy-five thousand people all over the world. It consistently indicated four character traits which most people look for and admire in a leader, namely that leaders must be *honest, forward-looking, competent and inspiring* (also see Du Brin, 1995:28-41):

- **Honest.** Ever since their research started more than two decades ago, honesty has been the character trait that always ended up as being the one that people require and admire the most in a leader. People do not want to be lied to or deceived by their leaders. People tend to experience their leader's honesty as a reflection of their own honesty. Kouzes & Posner's (2003:28) opinion is that followers of leaders with impeccable character are likely to be viewed as being similar in character. On the other hand, "if we willingly follow

someone who's considered dishonest, our own images are tarnished". The answer to the question of how a characteristic such as honesty can be measured, is that people observe the *behaviour* of the leader. People judge the honesty of leaders by the measure of consistency between what they say and what they do; a leader's deeds must be a reflection of his/her words.

- **Forward-looking.** A sense of direction and a concern for the future are the second most sought-after characteristics expressed by the respondents of the survey. "Leaders must know where they're going if they expect others to willingly join them on the journey" (Kouzes & Posner's, 2003:28). Being forward-looking does not mean that leaders should possess some supernatural powers and envision magical destinies. It merely implies that the leader has the ability to decide on an enviable destination towards which the followers will be (and want to be) led. This sense of destiny provided by effective leaders makes it easier for followers to plot proper routes in their endeavours to reach the destination.
- **Competent.** "If we doubt the leader's abilities, we're unlikely to enlist in the crusade" (Kouzes & Posner's, 2003:30). Leadership competency does not refer to the leader's capability in the primary technology and mechanisms of the organisation, but rather to his/her ability to guide the organisation in the proper direction. This does not imply that the leader should be ignorant about the fundamentals of the organisation, but he/she should not be expected to be the most technically proficient in their operational environment. Relevant experience as opposed to technical expertise is what sets effective leaders apart. Experience is the accumulation of knowledge derived from participation in the broader activities and events of the particular operational field. A practical example given by Kouzes & Posner (2003:30) is that an effective leader in a high technology company "may not need to be a master programmer, but must understand the business implications of electronic data interchange, networking, and the World Wide Web". Rather than being the

technical experts themselves, leaders must create the appropriate environment for the technical experts to thrive.

- **Inspiring.** “It’s not enough for the leader to have a dream about the future. A leader must be able to communicate the vision in ways that encourage us to sign on for the duration” (Kouzes & Posner’s, 2003:30). People need purpose and meaning in their lives, and enthusiastic and energetic leaders who are positive about the future give people confidence to face challenges with an enhanced sense of self-esteem and purpose. The future is never certain, but sometimes the uncertainty is greater than at other times. It is especially when people are worried and frightened about the future that a leader who reverberates positive emotions is called for to lead the people forward. “If a leader displays no passion for a cause, why should anyone else?” (Kouzes & Posner’s, 2003:30).

Much more can be (and is) said about the vast range of character traits identified in effective leaders, but other important elements of character need to be considered. These will be discussed in the following sections.

3.3.3 The Difference between Personality and Character

According to Hunter (2004:142), the word *personality* stems from the Latin word *persona*, which the ancient Greeks used to denote the masks worn by performers during their theatre dramas. Thus, personality is described as “the mask we wear for the world to see”. The word *character*, on the other hand, derives from a Greek verb implying “to engrave”. A person’s character is “what we are beneath our personality (mask)”.

This notion that personality is the more superficial trait of the two is shared by Levicki (1998:93). He alleges that personality is more about superficial habits and behaviours, whereas character is “the much more profound composition of the inner

person". Hunter (2004:144) reiterates this by saying that "character is of higher importance than personality, as evidenced by the fact that society does not hold people accountable for their personality traits but certainly does hold them accountable for their behaviour (character)".

Personality can be measured with scientific tools such as DISC (Dominance, Influencing, Steadiness, and Conscientious), and most people are a combination of these four basic styles. Personality types can range from extroverted to introverted, outgoing to shy, aggressive to passive, humorous to dry, resilient to reactive, charming to boring, and challenger to negotiator (Hunter, 2004:142).

Hunter (2004:142) also claims that a person's character is not necessarily consistent with their personality. "What you see may not be what you get". He believes that character has a lot more to do with leadership than personality, because personality is about styles, and leadership, like character, is more about substance.

A further difference between personality and character is that personality is normally set by the age of six, whereas character continues to grow and mature throughout one's life. Developing character involves winning the conflicts between what one wants to do as opposed to what one ought to do. Not only knowing what is right but doing what is right. One has to win these battles continually through life until it becomes habit (Hunter, 2004:144).

Levicki (1998:93) distinguishes between character and personality by saying that "personality is what people know about you after they have met you for a few minutes. Character is what they know about you after knowing you, or doing business with you, for ten years." This he considers to be one of the main reasons that a leader should concentrate on developing his character rather than his personality. He does not dismiss personality as totally unimportant, but because leadership is about the long term, one's long term achievements will be a reflection of one's character rather than one's personality.

An important question is answered by both Hunter (2004:144) and Levicki (1998:94). Can character be developed? It has long been believed that leadership can be developed (from there the many courses on leadership), and Hunter (2004:144) denotes leadership development and character development as one and the same thing. For Levicki (1998) the answer to the question is an unambiguous “yes”. As he puts it: “If we believe that we cannot affect or change our character in adult life, we would all be the ill-assorted results of accidental genetics and childhood environment.”

The suggestion by Hunter (2004:144) that leadership development equates to character development is endorsed, thus the focus on and use of the term “leadership character”.

To conclude on the elements of the inner make-up of a leader, the next section will consider the contemporary subject of emotional intelligence.

3.3.4 Emotional Intelligence

The question: “You’ve studied the psychology of leaders your whole life. How do you identify the successful ones?” was posed to De Vries, Professor of Leadership Development (with more than three decades experience in analysing CEOs) at Insead, France. His answer was: “The first thing I look for is emotional intelligence ... the most effective leaders have a crucial equivalence; they all have a high degree of emotional intelligence” (Coutu, 2004:2).

A variety of authors (Harbison, Reudisili & Shriberg in Shriberg *et al* 2002:159; Hunter, 2004:169; Kouzes & Posner, 2003:284; Levicki, 1998:71) acknowledge Goleman as the leading authority on emotional intelligence, therefore the original article by Goleman (2005:97) will serve as the main reference on the topic.

Emotional intelligence should not be confused with *emotional stability*. Emotional stability (also an important leadership trait) is described by Du Brin (1995:35) as “the ability to control emotions to the point that one’s emotional responses are appropriate to the occasion”. Typical emotions related to a person with low emotional stability will include anxiety, depression, anger, embarrassment, and worry. Effective leaders display emotional stability by being calm, confident and predictable, especially during a crisis.

Goleman (2005:97) describes five fundamental elements of emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill:

- **Self-awareness.** This entails having a profound comprehension of one’s emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs and drives. Self-aware leaders are honest – not only with others, but especially with themselves. Two examples given to explain the concept are, firstly, a self-aware person who realizes that he/she does not function effectively under tight deadlines, will ensure that his/her preparations are done well in advance. The other example is that a person who is true to his/her principles and long-term goals will turn down a financially tempting job offer, if the prospective job does not coincide with his/her values and goals.

Self-aware persons are recognised by their ability to assess themselves realistically. They know their strengths and limitations and will usually deal well with constructive criticism.

- **Self-regulation.** Self-regulation is the element of emotional intelligence which ensures that a person manages his biological impulses. Self-regulation equates to reasonableness and such a person will control feelings and impulses in order to create an environment of trust and fairness. The description of emotional stability suits that of self-regulation, for a self-regulated person does not concede to anger and the other negative emotions

associated with low emotional stability. Emotional stability also has a trickle-down effect in an organisation, since few, if any, subordinates would appreciate being known as the so-called hothead if the boss is known for his/her calm approach to solving challenges.

Another advantage of self-regulation is its suitability for competitiveness. Present-day working environments require constant adaptation to keep up, and self-regulated persons are consistently able to roll with the demands of change. In addition, self-regulation enhances organisational integrity, for it is hardly ever the self-regulated person who makes him/herself guilty of announcing exaggerated profits, steals from the organisation, or abuses power for selfish ends. Such actions are rather attributed to persons with impulsive behaviours.

- **Motivation.** Most effective leaders are driven to achieve beyond expectations. The driving factor to achieve in this context is not a pecuniary or status reward, but an intense desire to achieve for the sake of achievement. Such motivation stems from a passion for the work itself and the pride of looking back at a job well done. It is a common occurrence that people with high motivation are continuously raising performance ceilings, and they remain optimistic even when things tend to go wrong. Another trickle-down effect from high motivation is commitment to the organisation. People who love their work tend to be committed to the organisation that provides that working environment.
- **Empathy.** Emotional intelligence does not mean adopting everyone's emotions as one's own and trying to please everybody. It is more the process of making intelligent decisions while thoughtfully considering subordinates' feelings. As an example, a leader with empathy will intuitively feel compassion for anxiety-stricken employees when jobs become redundant, and make decisions and speeches that do not amplify a grim situation. Leadership involves teamwork, and where groups of people are concerned, decisions are

made that do not always meet the consent of each individual. Leaders with empathy will realize this, and listen to opposing inputs with empathy towards the individuals concerned, instead of just forcing the majority decision on everybody.

- **Social Skill.** Social skills, together with empathy, concern a leader's ability to manage relationships. Whereas the first three elements of emotional intelligence are self-management skills, social skill is about smoothly moving people in the direction the leader desires. They have the ability to create the impression in subordinates that nothing important gets done alone – everyone is important. One observation is that socially-skilled leaders tend to have a wide circle of acquaintances which provide a supportive network if the need arises.

To substantiate the importance of character in the inner make-up of a leader, and to show the correlation between character and emotional intelligence, Hunter (2004:169) quotes Goleman: "There is an old fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: character."

In conclusion, Goleman (2005:119) gives his assurance that emotional intelligence can be learned. Although emotional intelligence increases as people mature in life, people can still benefit from training to enhance the process. Learning emotional intelligence, like most other leadership capabilities, is, however, a long-term experience.

The following section will further illustrate that leadership character can be developed.

3.4 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER

Erasmus & Van Rensburg (2001:273) tested the contribution of adventurous training (horsemanship training, sailing and abseiling are typical adventurous training exercises) in the development of leadership character. Erasmus developed a questionnaire (Appendix A) based on six character traits, which tested the perceptions of students of the South African Military Academy (more on the South African Military Academy in Chapter 5) who took part in adventurous training.

The six character traits were physical and moral courage, self-control, confidence, overcoming setbacks, selfless service and acceptance of advice and criticism. How one would typically equate the adventurous training to the development of a character trait such as courage would be, for example with horsemanship training, to make the students aware that they will experience fear if they have never been on a horse before. The students must therefore find it in themselves to overcome this fear and face the challenge – in other words prove to themselves that they found the courage to face a daunting ordeal.

The value lies in being able to associate this training experience with a real-life experience. A young officer will experience fear on the battlefield, or fear the consequences of a moral decision. If he/she can recall the personal inner process used to overcome fear during the training exercise and apply this process of overcoming fear in practice, the training had a positive effect on developing the character trait and therefore on leadership character.

The research showed that 58,23% of the students perceived the adventurous training as having a positive effect on the development of the six character traits, with a minority of 9,48% indicating that the training did not have a positive consequence on the development of their leadership character, while 25,15% were undecided on the matter (Erasmus & Van Rensburg, 2001:280).

One can thus claim that it is possible to develop leadership character, and that one method of doing so is adventurous training.

3.5 SUMMARY

In concurrence with Shriberg *et al* (2002:19) it is submitted that leadership is a function of both the nature and nurture perspective. Genetics does play a role in the make-up of a leader, but the innate qualities of a prospective leader not only can be, but should be nurtured and developed to ensure their full potential. The learned part of leadership is mainly attained by years of appropriate experience, but the experience can be augmented by training in the form of courses and seminars.

Although leadership is sometimes viewed as a sub-section of management, there are distinct differences between the two concepts. Management concerns what people in senior positions of an organisation *do*, as opposed to leadership which deals more with who people *are*. Management and leadership also differ in terms of focus and attitude towards goals. Leaders tend to shape ideas instead of responding to them, and they are inclined to give less attention to the minutiae and technical details of an organisation than managers.

Leaders possess identifiable character traits, such as honesty, competency and courage and they are also forward-looking. These traits are present in almost everybody, but they can be further developed by exposing people to situations where these traits are needed to effectively cope with a particular situation – in other words through experience. Character differs from personality in the sense that personality is more about superficial habits and behaviours, whereas character is the much more profound composition of the inner person.

Effective leaders have crucial similarities; they have a high degree of emotional intelligence. The five fundamental elements of emotional intelligence are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill.

Chapter 3 highlighted those aspects that make leaders *who* they are. The intention with the following chapters is to research the development of leadership character in practice, especially in the military environment, in order to propose an alternative model for leadership character development of the young military leaders of South Africa.

CHAPTER 4

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN ARMED FORCES

“We must not allow ourselves to become like the system we oppose.”

Emeritus Archbishop Desmond Tutu

4.1 INTRODUCTION

A comparative analysis of other countries' armed forces to serve as basis for the proposal of an alternative leadership character development model for one's own, can give the researcher a myriad of viable options. The challenge lies in deciding on which to concentrate on – especially since most countries that are accessible for research do not differ vastly in their approach to the topic.

For reasons to be explained, the international focus for practical research was directed on Germany and the United Kingdom. Germany attracted interest because of the similarities in the challenges (similar to the South African experience explained in Chapter 5) that their armed forces faced after (a) the end of World War II (WW II) and (b) the establishment of their new democracy. After WW II Germany experienced the need to transform a defence force viewed by the citizens as a “state within a state” into an institution that society could relate to.

Apartheid South Africa also had a defence force that operated largely autonomously as a tool in the hands of securocrats (more on this will be discussed in Chapter 5). The majority of South Africans did not view the then South African Defence Force as a legitimate institution, and something had to be done to rectify this.

The post-1994 democracy in South Africa witnessed the integration of eight armed forces. The apartheid regime's South African Defence Force (SADF), the African

National Congress' (ANC) armed wing – *Umkhonto we Sizwe* (MK), the Pan African Congress' (PAC) armed wing, the Azanian People's Liberation Army (APLA), the KwaZulu Self Protection Forces of the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP), and the armies of Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) were integrated to form the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) (Le Roux in Williams, Cawthra & Abrahams, 2003:154; Modise, 2008:5).

The process is not complete, however, since much needs to be done to find an effective, integrated model for leadership character development in this integrated armed force. Similar to the South African situation, Germany also had to integrate the National People's Army into the *Bundeswehr* in their post-1990 democracy. The appealing factor in the German situation is that they realized that something needed to be done and the ambition turned into reality with the development and implementation of *Innere Führung*.

South Africa and its armed forces, as with any former British colony, cannot loosen itself from the influence of the United Kingdom on its current structure and systems. It will therefore be appropriate to recognise the British model in developing a model for leadership character development in the SANDF.

Although the following is clarified in Chapter 1 (Research Methodology), it is once again mentioned to bring the practical research in perspective with this chapter. The researcher ventured on a research tour to Germany and the United Kingdom during November 2007. In Germany contact sessions were had with Brigadier- General Bach, the General in command of the *Zentrum Innere Führung*, Koblenz, as well as with their Chief of Staff, *Oberst im Generalstabsdienst* (Colonel) Gerhard, and *Oberstleutnant* (Lieutenant-Colonel) Wilke, their Staff Officer Army. Information was gathered by way of interviews, presentations and discussions.

In the United Kingdom appointments were affected with staff of the British Army's Royal Military Academy Sandhurst at Camberley, as well as the Army Officer

Selection Board at Westbury. Similar to the German experience, information was gathered by way of interviews, presentations and discussions with the following staff members:

- Lieutenant Colonel C. Allender, Education Advisor at the Army Officer Selection Board, Westbury.
- Mr. M. Bennet, Deputy Head of Communications & Management Studies at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, Camberley.
- Lieutenant Colonel B. De La Hey, Commander Old School at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, Camberley.
- Major B. Hughes, Staff Officer Leadership at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, Camberley and
- Lieutenant Colonel (retired) S. Norman, Advisor at the Army Officer Selection Board, Westbury.

Germany and the United Kingdom thus serve as the primary sources of information for the comparative analysis, but Canada was also included as a secondary and therefore more limited source of information.

Canada was chosen in order to include information from another continent, for the comparable size of their armed forces to that of South Africa, as well as for their specialized institution on military leadership research, the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute. Canada has 62 000 military personnel serving 33 000 000 citizens (ratio of 1:532), while South Africa has 77 000 military personnel serving 45 000 000 citizens (ratio of 1:584) (SA Survey, 2007:5, 482; Canada's Military, 2008:1).

4.2 **INNERE FÜHRUNG: A GERMAN MILITARY SOLUTION FOR DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP CHARACTER**

The German defence force (*Bundeswehr*) founded its development of leadership character on the unique German *Innere Führung* system. The German Embassy in Washington, D.C., published a short article which describes the concept as one where the requirements of military mission and duty are merged with the dignity and rights of citizens. All *Bundeswehr* leadership activities on all levels, including education, essentially involve the principles of *Innere Führung* (German Embassy, 2008:1).

4.2.1 **Tracing the Origin of the Concept of *Innere Führung***

4.2.1.1 **The influence of World War II**

According to Wilke (2007) the concept of *Innere Führung* was initiated at the end of World War II (WW II) after the cessation of Hitler's Nazi regime. Literally translated *Innere Führung* means Inner Leadership, but it is applied by the *Bundeswehr* to encompass its model of the "citizen in uniform". Both Gerhard and Wilke (2007), on separate occasions, made it clear that it is a challenge to define *Innere Führung* in simple terms to a German audience – how much more so to a South African researcher? As the literal translation for *Innere Führung* is "inner leadership", it can be interpreted as the personal internal make-up of an individual leader, which is closely related to the researcher's understanding of character.

In the presentation by Wilke (2007), *Innere Führung* was defined by General Wolf Graf von Baudissin in 1982 as "...military leadership in consideration of social and individual aspects of the human being". Wilke's explanation is that German society experienced the Nazi regime's armed force as a "state within a state", in the sense that the German military force of that time was a separate entity with its own laws, standing apart from the rest of the German society. Collier & Pedley (2005:120)

uphold that the “state within a state” developed out of the mistrust between Hitler and his Nazi regime on the one side, and the aristocratic generals of the *Reichswehr* on the other. Not only did the Nazi armed force operate as a separate entity, but the majority of West German society, after WW II, could not relate to or identify with it. (see Scheck, 2006:1 – 5) on German society’s coming to terms with the past in the aftermath of WW II).

After the atrocities of WW II, West German society largely dissociated themselves from the armed forces. The need to transform the *Bundeswehr* into an institution not only accepted by German society, but also acknowledged as a necessary institution, culminated in the development and application of the principles of *Innere Führung*.

As already mentioned, *Innere Führung* encompasses the notion of “citizen in uniform”. To explain this concept McGregor (2006:4) quotes Van Doorn by stating that “the concept of the citizen soldier links the armed forces and society in a different way. Whereas the military professional is an expert, serving the nation as a specialist, the citizen soldier is an active member of the political community, who puts his efforts at the service of the community because his political rights include the right to bear arms. In this case, the way in which armed forces are related to society is defined and controlled by the societal environment”. *Innere Führung* is the mechanism which balances the developments in German society with the particularities of service in the military, without distorting the nature of either.

4.2.1.2 The Integration of the National People’s Army into the *Bundeswehr*

A second application of *Innere Führung* was when East Germany’s National People’s Army (NPA) was integrated into the *Bundeswehr*. This followed the unification of Germany on 3 October 1990. It is obvious that there were considerable differences in the value systems (an integral factor of character) of the two defence forces. The *Bundeswehr* of West Germany served a democratic government, as opposed to the

NPA of East Germany that was at the service of a communist regime (McGregor, 2006:7).

The principles of *Innere Führung* were, and are, viewed by the *Bundeswehr* to be both the lubricant and bonding agent in diminishing the obstacles encountered with most integration processes, especially when the two institutions to be integrated are not only huge in size, but have vastly different traditions and belief systems.

Integration processes usually involve a give and take scenario, obviously with the dominant institution having more influence on the way to go. Interesting (although explicable) is the *Bundeswehr's* unconcealed way of expressing the NPA's complete incapacity to contribute anything to the integrated *Bundeswehr's* tradition. The *Bundeswehr's* Joint Service Regulation (JSR) no ZDV 10/1 of 16 February 1993 (the valid Regulation on the date of the research visit to Germany) states:

“What is certain, however, is that the National People's Army, disbanded as it was upon the reunification of Germany, can contribute nothing to *Bundeswehr* tradition since it was an army of the ruling party and class in a communist system.”

Innere Führung set the stage for a German defence force where there can be no doubt or ambiguity as to what constitutes acceptable conduct and what is expected of its members, old and new. A symbolic inference materialized in the mind of the researcher during the visit in 2007. The *Zentrum Innere Führung* is situated in Koblenz, at the spot where the river Mosel flows into the Rhine. The Online Encyclopaedia (2008), cites the Encyclopaedia Britannica, 11th Edition, which states that the name *Koblenz* originates from the Latin word *confluentes*, which means “confluence” or “flowing together”. At Koblenz a river harmoniously merges with another, to become one; at the same place where the *Innere Führung* principles that facilitated the merging of one defence force with another, were and are fine tuned.

Innere Führung then, has a threefold function. Firstly, it was instrumental in making the *Bundeswehr*, and what it stands for, an acceptable institution in German society. Secondly, it was the mechanism for the smooth integration of the NPA into the *Bundeswehr*, and thirdly, and more important for this research, it is the current compilation of principles that each and every member of the German armed forces and its administration is expected to live by. It prescribes their conduct and character and is the “...basis from which ... the leadership behaviour of superiors is derived” (JSR no ZDV 10/1, 1993:2).

4.2.2 Statutory Foundations of *Innere Führung*

The principles of *Innere Führung* were promulgated as German legislation by means of a Joint Service Regulation by the Federal Ministry of Defence, JSR no ZDV 10/1 of 16 February 1993. The Regulation is written within the framework of the German Basic Law (translated as the German Constitution) as well as the constitutional foundations of the *Bundeswehr*.

The Regulation, JSR no ZDV 10/1 (1993) serves as foundation for the following discussion on some of the objectives and principles of *Innere Führung* in German military institutions:

- In awareness of the appalling legacy of the Nazi regime, one of the objectives is the creation of a humane internal order for the armed forces, one which conforms to the law while ensuring efficient and effective mission accomplishment. Germany relies on conscription of young males to meet the *Bundeswehr's* personnel requirements in terms of numbers, but is understandably aware of the potential reluctance to serve. This is why another objective articulates the political and legal validation for military service and makes the purpose of the military mission transparent and understandable. It thus serves to strengthen the willingness of service members to perform their duties loyally. The *Bundeswehr's* requires that its soldiers participate in their

own character development, act as responsible citizens, and be ready at all times to carry out the mission. The proper understanding and application of the total concept of *Innere Führung* will, theoretically, result in fulfilling these requirements (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993).

- The recognition of soldiers' rights as stipulated in the German Basic Law is extensively important in *Innere Führung*. Service members are afforded special legal remedies if their rights are violated. Apart from the usual right to lodge a complaint, they have *direct* recourse to the Parliamentary Commissioner for the Armed Forces. This remedy is not only available to address infringements of rights, but also if a principle of *Innere Führung* is disregarded. Noteworthy is the fact that as much emphasis is placed on the duties of the soldiers as on their rights; the notion of "a duty is a prerequisite to a right". More discussion on this will follow in the section on the practical application of *Innere Führung* (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993).
- *Innere Führung* recognises its inherent potential for conflicts of interest, and therefore specifies that the internal order of the *Bundeswehr* should find a balance between the following (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993):
 - functional efficiency and the individual rights or demands of the soldier;
 - a hierarchical military order and active participation of the soldiers;
 - enforcement of discipline and promotion of the soldier's sense of responsibility; and
 - the superior's undivided leadership responsibility and cooperative behaviour and delegation of responsibility.

- Another important principle of *Innere Führung* is the active participation of subordinates in all matters that concern them; a concept which military forces generally are not comfortable with. Even in the event of a public debate on matters concerning the armed forces, security and defence policy, soldiers are mandated to actively participate and express their views. Soldiers are also encouraged to participate in political, cultural, religious and social life, and superiors are supposed to initiate opportunities for this. This is an example of the “citizen soldier” actively involved in shaping society and life in his community. Superior ranks, however, are obliged to suppress their personal opinions when it comes to defence and security policy matters when interfacing with the public, and this obligation increases with rank (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993).

4.2.3 Practical Application of *Innere Führung*

The research experience in Germany during 2007 led to the inference that *Innere Führung* also implies the responsibility by superiors for the continuous creation of a proper environment to enable subordinates to develop to their full potential. Moreover, subordinate soldiers are charged with the responsibility of endeavouring to live the principles of *Innere Führung* in this environment created by superiors.

Although the *Bundeswehr* have two academic universities (situated at Hamburg and Munich), they seem to differ from standard military academies in other countries in the sense that there is no emphasis on military matters. Their focus is purely academic, similar to civilian universities. The reasoning behind this is to equip officers for a civilian career after completion of their military service (Wilke, 2007).

The *Zentrum Innere Führung* is thus the *Bundeswehr* institution which promotes the principles of *Innere Führung*. This does not mean that the principles are not tutored at other German military training institutions; indeed, as mentioned before, *Innere Führung* is a vital part of all *Bundeswehr* leadership activities, training and education

on all levels. The *Zentrum Innere Führung*, however, is the driving force that hones the principles to be adopted by the *Bundeswehr*. Education in the principles of *Innere Führung* includes designated periods during the basic training of all soldiers at all training institutions. Soldiers who are about to be deployed on foreign missions must complete a one-week course on the principles at the *Bundeswehr*'s barracks, as well as one to two weeks' education at a specialised training institution such as the *Zentrum Innere Führung* in Koblenz. Career soldiers attend short *Innere Führung* courses throughout the year at different specialised training institutions (Wilke, 2007).

The concept of *Innere Führung* is kept pertinent to prevailing conditions in Germany by the *Zentrum Innere Führung*, also known as The Leadership Development and Civic Education Centre, the Joint Task Group on *Innere Führung*, and the Advisory Council on Leadership Development and Civic Education.

As stated in Chapter 1, one of the influences in directing the researcher to the *Zentrum Innere Führung*, was correspondence with an academic, Professor Reiner Pommerin, who holds the chair for Modern and Contemporary History at the Technical University of Dresden. Professor Pommerin is also a member of the aforementioned Joint Task Group, which acts in an advisory capacity to the Federal Minister of Defence.

One of the conclusions drawn from the researcher's visit is that the *Bundeswehr* does not rely on one or two institutions with specific programmes focussed on character development. They are positive that their young officers' character will sufficiently be developed through superior officers who have intensive training in and knowledge of the principles of *Innere Führung*. It is more a way of living, and the example is set by superiors, and importantly, considerable latitude is allowed in the decision making and actions of soldiers. The conviction is that soldiers will develop by being allowed to make mistakes. Wilke (2007) is of the opinion that, in a defence force where the members are voluntary soldiers, the authority of superiors is given to them by their subordinates, and not by the organisation or the superior's position or rank. The

simple argument being that if no one volunteers for service, there will be no one over whom to exercise authority – it is thus the presence of the soldiers that transfers the authority to command. This reminds one of Burns's (1979:426) view that, in the leadership relationship, leaders and followers depend on each other. Notice that conscripted German citizens can refuse to do military service, but are then obliged to do alternative public service (either nine months' military service or a hundred hours per year for six years in an alternative institution, normally a medical or disaster relief institution).

The leadership character traits identified in Chapter 3 include honesty, loyalty, courage and initiative (Downes, 1991:128; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:136; Kouzes & Posner, 2003:25; Du Brin, 1995:29). These are typical of what Wilke (2007) identifies as virtues. Virtues symbolise how the soldier will fight (disciplined and courageous) as opposed to values which determine what the soldier fights for. The values that German soldiers will fight for are the constitutional principles as laid down in their Basic Law, such as the preservation of human dignity, of peace in freedom and the safeguarding of human rights. *Innere Führung* addresses these concepts, and even embraces more tangible concepts such as Personnel Management, Law and Military Discipline, Political Education, Time Management, Material Supply, Information Activities and Organisational Structures. Social concepts such as Care and Welfare, Medical Care and Chaplain Services are also dealt with (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993).

4.2.3.1 Guidelines for the Practical Application of *Innere Führung*

Bundeswehr members are supplied with the following guidelines for the practical application of *Innere Führung*. All *Bundeswehr* officers and non-commissioned officers are obliged to receive instructions on these guidelines, which consist of general requirements governing the conduct of all soldiers, and special requirements for the behaviour of superiors:

- ***The Professional Self-image of Soldiers.*** Over and above identifying with German Basic Law and the military mission and the principles of *Innere Führung*, German soldiers are instructed to take an active interest in the basic issues of the military profession. Superiors are instructed to foster the subordinates' understanding of the special nature of military service, as well as to ensure that they are prepared for the conditions and dangers of deployment (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- ***The Soldier's Basic Duty.*** The soldiers are made aware that risking their lives are endemic to their basic duty, the basic duty being to loyally serve the Federal Republic of Germany and bravely defend the rights and freedom of the German people. The superiors are required to actively ensure the lawful compliance with this duty (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- ***Discipline and Authority.*** The soldiers are commanded to suppress their personal interests whilst advancing those of the military community and the military tasks. The superiors acquire authority by setting examples in the way they conduct themselves and perform their duty. They are also expected to share hardships and deprivation with their soldiers, and to help them cope with the demands set for them (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- ***Law and Justice.*** The soldiers are made aware that the accomplishment of the mission is not above the law. Albeit their options for action are restricted, they must at all times comply with the law. In exercising command and authority and disciplinary power the superiors enforce the law, in due consideration of the soldiers' basic rights. Each individual soldier's situation must be taken into account (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).

- **Order and Obedience.** The soldiers are obligated to obey their superiors, but are aware of the limits their duty of obedience has in accordance with the law. The superiors restrict their orders to service-specific purposes and in accordance with the law. The context of orders must be explained, and enforced in a way appropriate to the circumstances. They are expected to avoid hurting others through harshness or coldness, and in cases of misconduct, the soldier involved must be granted the opportunity to speak. The soldiers must be made aware of the consequences of their actions before demands for appropriate behaviour in the future is made (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- **Cohesion.** The responsibility to maintain cohesion in the *Bundeswehr* is distributed evenly between superiors and subordinates. Trust, respect and tolerance are the key words. Mutual trust must be earned and then cultivated, there must be respect for the dignity and freedom of others, as well as tolerance and consideration for others.

The soldiers promote cohesion by assuming responsibility, bringing to bear their expertise, displaying courage and openness in discussions, supporting their fellow soldiers to the best of their ability and by acting independently within the mission framework. They admit errors and accept criticism.

The superiors involve their subordinates in the planning and organisation of duty activities. They do not consider this participation and involvement to be an obstacle, but rather a necessary and important contribution to the decision making process. They promote a relaxed and pleasant climate in which it is a joy to serve.

The superiors have to provide detailed information in good time, even on long-term plans and fundamental directives, and create opportunities for subordinates to discuss matters.

Soldiers gain confidence by being allowed to make initial mistakes, and gradually mastering difficulties to feel able to assume greater responsibilities (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).

- ***Organising Duty Activities and Training.*** The soldiers are encouraged to participate in the organisation of duty activities by making suggestions and assuming tasks and responsibilities. The superiors must plan and organise duty and training activities, which must be varied, demanding, realistic and eventful, in close cooperation with their soldiers. Praise and encouragement are viewed as effective leadership tools for the personal development of soldiers (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- ***Political Education.*** Soldiers are required to keep abreast of political events to help them better determine their place in society as citizens and soldiers. The superiors are personally required to provide soldiers with instruction in civic education, and they should be tolerant of other opinions, and open-minded when dealing with controversial issues (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- ***Morale and Welfare.*** If soldiers need assistance, the needs must be made known in good time, but they are not released from the responsibility of aiding themselves to the best of their ability. The superiors, in taking care of their soldiers, put their own concerns aside. If necessary, they should arrange for additional support speedily without being influenced by the general conduct of the soldiers concerned. Soldiers are involved in the planning and organisation of leisure time (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- ***Chaplain Services.*** The soldiers have a right to pastoral care and undisturbed worship. The superiors must respect the religious preferences of their

subordinates and maintain a working relationship with the chaplain services (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).

- **Information Activities.** Information activities are the responsibility of superiors, who provide information, answer questions and explain how the armed forces see themselves. The soldiers have the duty to enhance the *Bundeswehr's* public image by their conduct and in particular their appearance (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).
- **Personnel Management.** The soldiers' roles in contributing to effective personnel management involve making their objectives, personal concerns, ideas and wishes known as early as possible. They are made aware of the importance of seeking advice in career matters, and are guided to understand that effective personnel decisions take both the needs of the employer and the soldiers into account. Superiors are to advise subordinates in career matters, but are cautioned not to offer more than general information. More specific advice can be given only after consultation with the appropriate personnel management agencies. Superiors are also made aware of the widespread importance of personnel assessment, which has a decisive influence not only on the careers of soldiers, but also on the performance of the armed forces in general. Superiors are commanded to appraise leadership abilities with special care, as it influences the quality of *Innere Führung* in the *Bundeswehr* and plays a key role in the selection of future leaders (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, Appendix 1, 1993; Wilke, 2007).

4.2.4 An Appraisal of *Innere Führung*

Bach, Gerhard and Wilke (2007) felt it appropriate to note that *Innere Führung* is a German concept, developed by Germans for Germans. To some extent it was sensed that criticism of the concept by an outsider to Germany would not be accepted with much grace. Germans are positive that the concept works for them.

During the interview it was also made clear that the concept cannot be adopted in its entirety by another country, as the concept was developed as a unique solution for unique German challenges. It is certain though, that this German concept can selectively be applied to a model for leadership character development for most other countries' armed forces.

The concept is prescriptive in nature, in the sense that a ministerial regulation by the German Federal Ministry of Defence specifies the objectives and principles that "...must underlie military tasks"; the Regulation translates the principles of *Innere Führung* into "...instructions to be applied in the armed forces" (JSR no ZDV 10/1, 1993:2). The advantage is that there can be no doubt in the armed forces what the requirements and objectives are which must be sought after. It is not a concept developed by a subordinate institution within the armed forces, attempting to sell the concept to headquarters; headquarters drives the concept on instruction from political superiors (the Germans express it as "primacy of politics"). Such a state of affairs is favourable when it comes to securing a budget to support the necessary activities required for a successful project.

The difficulty in defining *Innere Führung* reminds one of the classical approach to leadership theory (as explained in Chapter 2), where no real single definition of leadership was attempted, but rather detailed explanations of various situations, actions, traits, expertise and the like were offered as the ideal. Like Plato of old, who defended expertise as the basis for leadership, the Germans resiliently advocate the expertise and experience of superiors as being vital to the leadership character development of subordinates. A huge difference though, is Plato's rejection of any form of democracy as opposed to German society's absolute preference for democracy (Grint, 1997:ix). The values, principles and objectives underlying *Innere Führung* also remind one of Sun Tzu, who claimed that the real art does not lie in war itself, but in the avoidance of war (Grint, 1997:21, 43) (Chapter 2).

Emotional intelligence is lately viewed as a crucial element in the character of a successful leader. Intentionally or not, the German model compares rather favourably to Goleman's (2005:97) (Chapter 3) fundamental elements of emotional intelligence. (a) Self-awareness is described by Goldman as leaders' ability to realise how to assess themselves realistically in terms of their strengths as well as weaknesses. The Germans' Joint Service Regulation (JSR no ZDV 10/1, 1993:16) states that "knowing one's own limits makes it easier to deal with the strengths and weaknesses of others. This is why superiors must endeavour to take a critical look at their own performance. They must keep in mind that their behaviour is under constant scrutiny and influence of their military and civilian environment. A superior does not lose face if he asks his soldiers for advice and admits errors." (b) Self-regulation, which equates to emotional stability, stresses the importance of a superior's calm approach to solving problems. According to the German model it is the superior's calm reaction to initial errors which ensures that his soldiers gain in confidence, master difficulties and feel able to assume greater responsibility. (c) Empathy is about the ability to make intelligent decisions while thoughtfully considering subordinates' feelings. German superiors are compelled to explain the context of orders, and to avoid hurting others by harshness or coldness. (d) Social skill concerns the leader's ability to manage relationships. *Innere Führung* amply reveals the importance of cohesion in the *Bundeswehr*. Trust must be earned and cultivated, and respect for the dignity and freedom of others as well as tolerance and consideration of others have great substance.

Much can be debated about the appropriateness or not of the concept of *Innere Führung* on the success of warfare (the essence of an armed force), but that is a focus area for another research endeavour; this focus is on the development of leadership character in military leaders.

Although Germany does not attach as much importance to its selection of officers for the *Bundeswehr* as the United Kingdom does (to be explained later in this chapter), it is always an important part of any defence force's practice, as the selection process

determines the type of military leader to be developed, as well as excludes unsuitable candidates. The German perspective will thus be concluded with a section on its officer selection.

4.2.5 Officer Selection in the *Bundeswehr*

The selection of officers is based on the premise that candidates will firstly, without any reservations, uphold the values of the Constitution and secondly for their basic ability to master and execute leadership assignments. Both civilians and military personnel can apply to appear before the selection board, and the same selection criteria are used for both groupings (Birke, 2000:15-1).

The selection board is administered in Cologne, West Germany, and is handled by three members, with one vote each, who differ in educational background and experience. The reason for this is to prevent the placing of too much emphasis on any one component of a candidate's aptitude. The three members form what is referred to as a commission, with ten commissions per selection phase. Every commission has an officer in charge (typically a former battalion commander), a Captain (typically a former company commander) and a certified psychologist. Each commission evaluates eight to nine candidates per session, and for candidates the evaluation takes about two days.

The following aptitude factors are rated by the commissions on a seven point scale to determine whether a candidate is most suited, well suited, suited or unsuited:

- Conscientiousness
- Leadership potential
- Social competence

- Style of expression and communication
- Judgement, decisiveness
- Learning and achievement motivation
- Stress resistance
- Reasoning
- Professional and career orientation
- Physical fitness

The tools used to test candidates' aptitude are personnel files (curriculum vitae, school reports), psychological tests (intelligence, mathematical knowledge), a short essay, an interview (personality traits), a short lecture by the applicant (ability to speak freely, range of ideas), a round table discussion (mental and personality factors), a group task and physical fitness (medical examination and physical fitness test).

Birke (2000:15-2) mentions that about 2 700 officers need to be replaced each year in order to maintain the required number of officers. It sometimes happens that the supply of candidates for their army is at such a low level that candidates with the lowest acceptable level of aptitude are selected without satisfying the demand.

The next section will explore the United Kingdom model of leadership development in their armed forces.

4.3 PERSPECTIVES ON A TIME-HONOURED SOCIETY'S APPROACH TO MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT: THE UNITED KINGDOM

The United Kingdom does not share Germany's challenges of being a new, integrated democracy. Bennet (2007) mentioned that the British armed forces are part of an ancient society where everyone pretty much knows what is expected in terms of conduct and character. This viewpoint is enhanced by Mileham's (2001:iii) statement that "the British Army is a very mature organization, which suffered no discontinuity since becoming all professional in 1960. Much of the concept, character, practice and quality of British Army officership has been assumed, and not studied as deeply and comprehensively as in other countries." A similarity between Germany and the United Kingdom though, is both countries' confidence in their own particular model of officers' leadership character development. With regards to officership; it can be described as the profession followed by military personnel who are commissioned to serve their country by leading other soldiers in military-related activities. It is distinguished from other professions by the specific military skills, knowledge and expertise required; an understanding of the military institution and an understanding of the lawful behaviour and conduct related to war situations (Thie & Brown, 1994:213).

It is this reality of being a time-honoured society which, according to Bennet (2007), negates the necessity for a legislative foundation for leadership character development in the British armed forces. It is a known fact that the United Kingdom does not have a written constitution (not written in a single document, but over the years derived from statutes, court judgements, common law and similar sources) – unlike Countries such as Canada, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Republic of South Africa and the United States of America which all have written constitutions – a constitution being the supreme act against which all other legislation may be tested for validity.

It is the historical connection between the United Kingdom and South Africa that led to the inclusion of the British perspective in this research. South Africa, being a former colony of the United Kingdom, still has British traditions and regimental systems well established in its own armed forces.

The United Kingdom employs various institutions, such as the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, the Britannia Royal Naval College, the Royal Air Force College and the Defence Leadership Centre for the leadership character development of their military leaders. The Royal Military Academy Sandhurst (RMAS), situated at Camberley in the county of Surrey, is where all British Army officers must undergo their initial officer training in order to be commissioned as officers. The army being the largest service in an armed force, RMAS was the institute of choice to research the leadership character development of young leaders in the British armed forces.

4.3.1 Leadership Character Development in the British Army

Preliminary interventions in the development of leadership character are set in motion long before officer cadets report to RMAS. Candidates for officer training can be selected as long as five years prior to reporting to RMAS (civilians apply to appear at the Army Officer Selection board, and if selected, the selection is valid for five years – in other words the selected candidate can choose to remain a civilian for up to five years before joining the Army) (Norman, 2007).

4.3.1.1 The Army Officer Selection Board

Although it is not confirmed, it was stated by staff members of both the Army Officer Selection Board (AOSB) and RMAS that the British model of selecting officer candidates is based on the German model used during WW II, where a group of strangers are put together to perform challenging assignments while their natural reaction and behaviour are recorded. The concept of “working with strangers” is maintained by candidates not being allowed to address each other by name, but by a

number (numbers 1 to 8, where a candidate group are made up by 8 members). The AOSB, at Westbury in the English county of Wiltshire, engages two interrelated phases. The first, called the Briefing, is conducted over two days to “...enable candidates to discover if they should consider becoming an Army officer and to prepare them for selection” (Norman, 2007). The second phase, the Main Board, is conducted over four days with the mission to “...select potential officers for training and education to command soldiers in peace and on operations and for specialist functions within the Army” (Norman, 2007).

- ***The Briefing.*** The Briefing is also a type of preliminary filter to eliminate candidates who are obviously unsuitable to proceed to the Main Board. Over the two days the candidates are put through various trials which test their physical and mental competencies. The importance of character for the British Army is already highlighted in the stated aim and purpose of the selection board Briefing where candidates with insufficient intellect or “character”, or both, are eliminated. This is achieved by means of intellectual and physical tests, where the physical tests are not solely aimed at testing the candidates’ fitness and potential physical endurance, but also to test behaviour outdoors when placed in challenging situations.

Each candidate’s individual intelligence is determined by testing his/her abstract reasoning, verbal reasoning and numerical reasoning capability. The outdoors exercises include obstacle courses and group tasks where certain objectives must be reached without a designated group leader. Measured against a predetermined standard, each individual candidate’s results will determine whether (a) he/she will go forward to the Main Board without any reservations, (b) progress to the Main Board is delayed for further development, (c) considerable improvement is required before he/she can progress to the Main Board or (d) the candidate is not suitable at all.

- ***The Main Board.*** The importance of character features once again in the written charter of the subsequent Main Board. The charter reads “to select from the field of suitably qualified candidates, those with the potential qualities of *character*, ability and leadership who should, after training, be able to command a sub-unit (platoon or troop) in the performance of common military tasks in peace and war” (Norman, 2007).

During the Main Board selection process, the candidates are once again put through various intellectual and physically challenging tests, but this time more intense and focussed than during the Briefing. The process is designed to select only those candidates whose intellect meets the required standard, and importantly, whose behaviour and decision-making ability holds under conditions of stress.

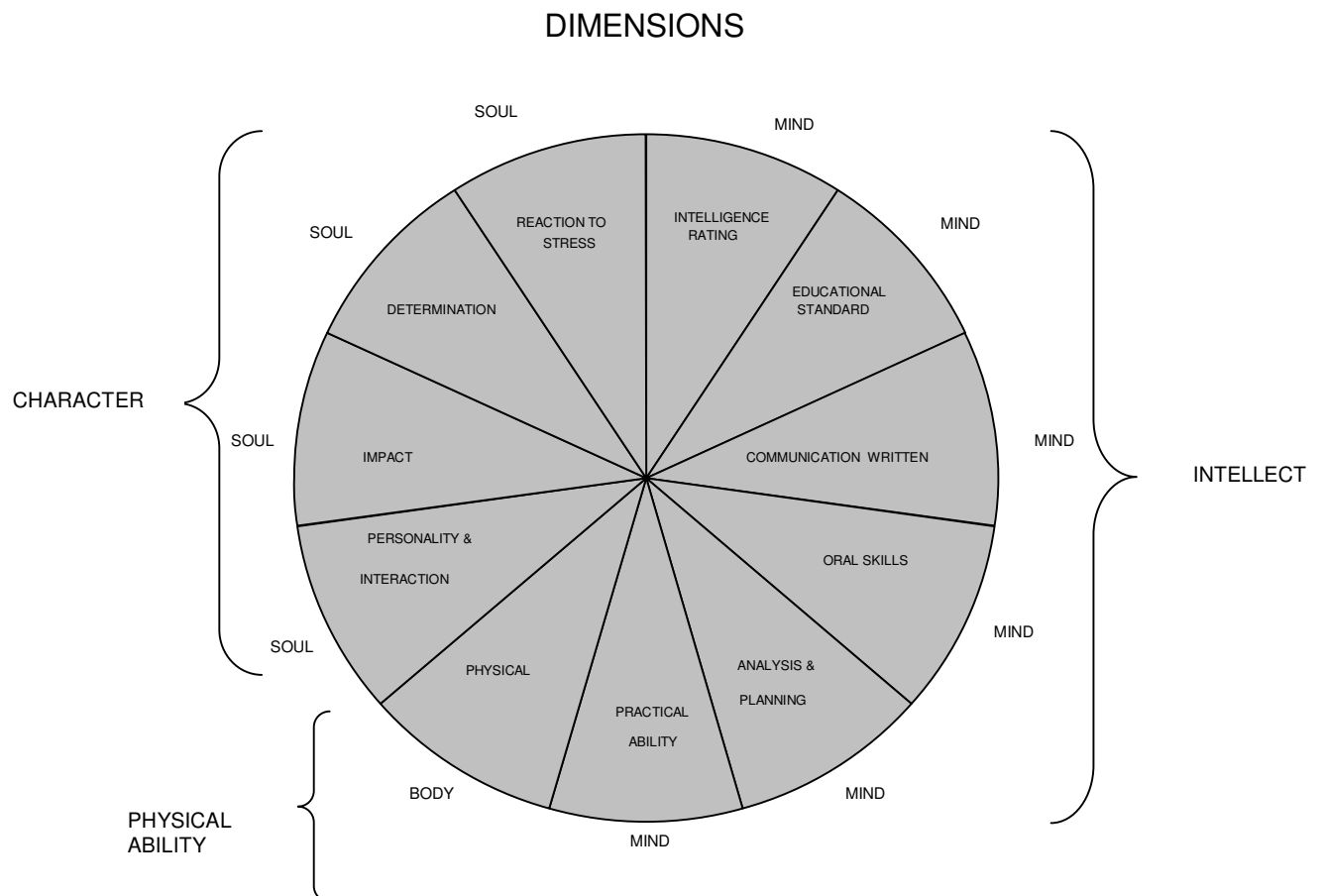
Throughout the four-day programme the following eleven dimensions which test the mind, body and soul of each candidate, are persistently observed:

- *Officer Intelligence Rating.* Based on three psychometric assessments, a rating to indicate a candidate’s mental aptitude profile.
- *Educational Standard.* A rating based on a candidate’s previously attained educational performance.
- *Communication Written.* The ability to write clearly and accurately.
- *Oral Skills.* The ability of the candidate to orally convey information and ideas in a succinct and clear way.
- *Analysis and Planning.* The ability of the candidate to appreciate the factors involved in the logical solution of a problem and to arrive at a workable plan.

- *Practical ability*. The ability of the candidate to deal with concrete, factual problems in a practical manner exercising common sense and judgement.
- *Physical*. The extent to which a candidate possesses the ability, robustness and co-ordination necessary to cope with military training and to meet the demands of military life.
- *Personality and Interaction*. The ability of the candidate to relate to others individually and within groups.
- *Impact*. The ability of the candidate to take a prominent role when working as part of a group.
- *Determination (Motivation and Commitment)*. The ability of the candidate to maintain a high level of effort especially when faced with obstacles or disagreeable tasks.
- *Reaction to Stress*. The ability of the candidate to function effectively when under a degree of stress.

Figure 4.1 was created by using information supplied during the interview with Norman (2007), and gives more clarity on how these eleven dimensions, and the three aspects of mind, body and soul; and intellect, character and physical ability are connected.

Figure 4.1: DIMENSIONS USED TO ANALYZE THE MIND BODY AND SOUL

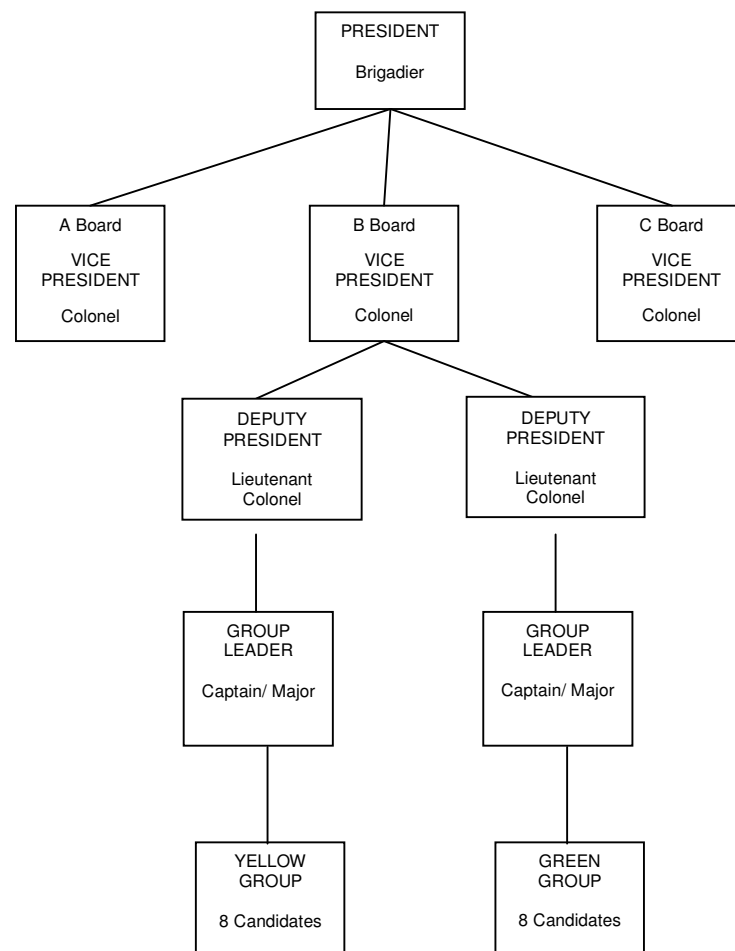


The Main Board uses what is called Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS) to rate candidates on a 0 to 9 scale, where 5 to 9 will vary from adequate to good, 3 to 4 indicate borderline cases and 0 to 2 are regarded as inadequate. A typical rating between 7 and 9 will indicate that the candidate naturally assumes the lead of the group who readily gives way to his view. The candidate displays a high level of self-confidence, always shows enthusiasm, involvement and initiative, and when in the lead always maintains control. Candidates rated from 0 to 1 will be regarded as being devoid of self-confidence and influence, who seldom have suggestions or ideas, or when offering ideas they are not acted upon by the group. They have little or no

influence on the course of events, show no initiative and only act when directed.

It is significant to comprehend the relative seniority of the members of the AOSB. See Figure 4.2 (created by using information supplied during the interview with Norman, 2007) for the organisation of the AOSB (excluding auxiliary staff).

Figure 4.2: AOSB ORGANISATION



The organigram demonstrates that each group of only eight candidates are under the command of a Captain/Major. To explain how the AOSB operates; each group of eight candidates is continuously and closely evaluated over a period of four days by a Captain/Major as well as a Lieutenant Colonel, and two groups of eight members each will be evaluated by two Captains/Majors, two Lieutenant Colonels as well as one Colonel (full Colonel). The president of all the selection boards, and commanding officer of the unit, is a Brigadier (equivalent to a Brigadier General in the SANDF). The AOSB is thus capable of repeating the selection process on a weekly basis, with a remarkably senior assembly of staff evaluating a relatively small group of candidates. The AOSB is a permanent operational unit whose business it is to select officers on a continuous basis throughout each year.

Only after passing the test of a two-day Briefing and a four-day Main Board selection process, are the candidates regarded as suitable to report to RMAS (keep in mind that candidates are civilians who only have to report to the British Army's RMAS within five years after passing the officer selection process).

4.3.1.2 Leadership Character Development at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst

It is observed that RMAS has confidence in the AOSB. According to Hughes (2007) as well as De La Hey (2007) it is reasonably sure that officer cadets will pass their course at RMAS once they have passed the officer selection board. The officer cadets are also relatively more mature and intellectually stimulated than candidate officers in, for example, Germany and South Africa (discussed in Chapter 5), in the sense that more than 80% of them already have university degrees when reporting for the course.

The staff members at RMAS accept that the necessary leadership character traits are inherently present in each officer cadet, and that the selection process has already

found the right persons to be trained; what is left to do by RMAS are interventions to build upon these inherent leadership traits. Consequently the training at RMAS is not structured as much to determine whether officer cadets reach a desired level of leadership and character development, but rather designed to have officer cadets in touch with the desired core values and focussed on leadership dimensions throughout their course (De La Hey, 2007). The significance of *leadership* and *character* development for the British Army officer is well established in RMAS's mission statement and core objectives. According to Mileham (2001:145) these are:

“Mission. Through military training and education, to develop the qualities of leadership, *character* and intellect demanded of an Army Officer.

Core Objectives:

- a) To develop commanders who possess the *courage*, *willpower* and *temperament* to take decisive action to achieve the mission in difficult and dangerous circumstances.
- b) To foster attitudes of *integrity*, *commitment*, *self-sacrifice* and *mutual trust* that result in standards of behaviour that promote military effectiveness.
- c) To enable the Officer Cadets to think and communicate as commanders and foster a deep interest and care for the soldiers under their command.
- d) To achieve a grounding in British Military doctrine and understand its significance in all forms of conflict.
- e) To encourage the analysis of strategic and war studies as a foundation to military thought and wisdom.

- f) To train Officer Cadets in the basic skills and battlefield disciplines of soldiering.”

The commissioning course at RMAS is structured over forty two weeks of training; three terms of fourteen weeks each. Added to this are advanced training ventures to make up a total of forty four weeks per year. The three terms are labelled the Junior, Intermediate and Senior Term respectively. The Junior Term (producing the soldier) covers basic military skills and knowledge of tactics, a progressive Combat Fitness syllabus and an early introduction to Leadership and Management doctrine. The Intermediate Term (producing the officer) continues with training in leadership and management, concentrating on Advanced Leadership Theory and practical experience as well as further development of army ethos and officership standards. The Senior Term (producing the leader) seeks to develop and confirm the leadership and management skills, as well as to equip Officer Cadets with the ability to manage and develop their subordinates. Academic studies are continuously presented from the seventh week in the Junior Term throughout the rest of the course. It is thus during both the Intermediate and Senior Terms that attention is given to the development of leadership character (De La Hey, 2007; Mileham, 2001:145).

A distinguishing observable fact at RMAS is the high standard expected from their Colour Sergeants (similar to the SANDF's Staff Sergeants). On entering RMAS, Officer Cadets get assigned to a platoon of about thirty members. Each platoon is commanded by a Captain who is supported by a Colour Sergeant. The Colour Sergeants assist the Platoon Commanders, but are actually far more involved with the Officer Cadets than anyone else. They teach the practical application of all the subjects and are responsible for the discipline and administration of their platoons. They are also closely involved with the constant assessment of the Officer Cadets. To become a Colour Sergeant at RMAS, one must first apply. This is followed by an intense four weeks selection exercise after which only the best are selected. The platoon commanders (senior Captains) do not follow this selection process, but get

recommended by their respective Commanding Officers after which they must be appointed by the Army Personnel Centre (De La Hey, 2007).

- ***Officer Cadet Assessment.*** An important part of the assessment of Officer Cadets is the Officer Cadet Appointment Assessment. Each Officer Cadet is issued with a job specification that points out the responsibilities, tasks, possible future job changes, conditions under which the job is performed and selection and training requirements of a RMAS Officer Cadet upon commissioning. Their performance attributes are assessed with a dual assessment form evaluating their Leadership and Officer Qualities (leadership character) as well as Command Qualities (management). The required Leadership and Officer Qualities of the assessment, being important for this research, are shown in Table 4.1 (created by using information received during interview with De La Hey, 2007).

Table 4.1: PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL ON THE LEADERSHIP AND QUALITIES OF A BRITISH ARMY OFFICER CADET

Performance Attributes	
Leadership and Qualities of an Officer	
Does the Officer Cadet with regards to the following:	
Initiative	-take action without being prompted?
Confidence/Impact	-trust his/her own abilities? -demonstrate sufficient self-confidence to influence others? -have an effect on the conduct of the task/mission? -impose his/her will by strength of personality? -demonstrate a sense of urgency when appropriate?
Selfless Commitment	-lead by example? -put the needs of the mission before his/her own?
Self Discipline/Teamwork	-relate to the team/assist others when able? -take an active part in the solving of a problem? -demonstrate self discipline, co-operation and tact?
Common Sense/Judgement	-display sound sense in given situations? -act over ambitious or unrealistic in given situations? -execute sound judgement in given situations?
Determination/Enthusiasm	-maintain a high level of effort when faced with obstacles/challenges? -display a sense of purpose/application if faced with the unfamiliar? -overcome natural fear of a situation or activity?
Moral courage/Integrity	-have the courage to do what is honest and within the code of conduct? -act truthful, principled and with candour?
Loyalty and Trust	-demonstrate loyalty to and trust in commanders and subordinates?
Humility and Humanity	-have respect for others?
Sense of Humour	-demonstrate an appropriate sense of humour?
Powers of Communications	-have good powers of expression? -have the ability to be easily understood in both written and verbal communications?

Adventurous Training. A further tool used to develop leadership character, is adventurous training. The British Army supports the idea that adventurous training (AT), such as scuba diving, offshore sailing, rock climbing, mountaineering, skiing

and hang-gliding, is a valuable aid in developing leadership character. The British acknowledge that other countries' armed forces, such as Australia and Canada also engage in adventurous training with the objective of developing leadership character, but not to the same extent as the British Army. According to Cuthbert (2007:22), adventurous training in the British Army stems from real life challenges that had to be overcome during WWII. During that time, British commando training took place in the rugged mountain terrain of west Scotland, to prepare the soldiers to invade enemy coastlines and to operate behind enemy lines. The skills needed for those military operations were mountaineering, canoeing, night navigation, advanced first aid and understanding and avoiding hypothermia.

The British Army recognised the leadership character development value of those days' training, and today extensively applies the lessons learned. This coincides with Erasmus & Van Rensburg's (2001:280) (Chapter 3) empirical research on the value of adventurous training. Cuthbert (2007:24) states that the importance of adventurous training for the British Army is proved by the fact that all RMAS officer cadets are trained to plan, secure finances and authority, and to execute overseas adventurous training exercises. In 2005 RMAS mounted 64 adventurous training expeditions, the majority of which were overseas.

4.3.2 An Appraisal of the Leadership Character Development of British Army Officer Cadets

The British model of leadership character development of their young leaders in the Army is not instituted on a specific written foundation, but rather developed over time as part of a mature society. Such a model can only be applied in a society where the majority of citizens have faith in the same set of values.

Obviously the United Kingdom has its share of historical differences between England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, but support is given to Bennet's (2007) view that the community is not divided on concepts such as what constitutes

good leadership traits, what rights citizens have, what the role of the military as part of society is, and so forth. This is why the British Army model for leadership development is not structured into efforts to introduce Officer Cadets to leadership character dimensions and to strictly observe how Officer Cadets might reach these development targets. It is rather a matter of accepting that the leadership character dimensions are already present in the selected Officer Cadets (due to their comprehensive officer selection process as well as that the candidates are the products of a mature and established society), and then to merely make sure that the Officer Cadets stay focussed on core values and the leadership dimension (De La Hey, 2007).

Some structural changes did take place during the early 1990s, such as the abolition of previous distinctions between graduates and non-graduates, and male and female Officer Cadets, in the RMAS syllabus content, – the same syllabus now applies to all (Mileham, 2001:145). Mileham (2001:145) also found that, compared to the 1960s, the study of leadership has been given pre-eminence over the past eight to ten years.

A further distinguishing factor of the British model is the Army's absolute trust in the selection process of Officer Cadets. A great deal of experienced human resources and time are invested in their selection process, and this is augmented by the same approach when it comes to the selection of their Colour Sergeants – the individuals who will be closest to the Officer Cadets during their three terms of training. Further, the British Army is willing to invest considerable time and financial resources to have their officer cadets involved in adventurous training – this is believed to play an important role in the development of leadership character.

It is also a requirement of the British Army that all officers undergo training at RMAS before commissioning. The longest course is the regular three term Officer Cadet course, but all other candidate officers, whether late entry (Warrant Officers to be commissioned) or professionals (medical doctors, lawyers) or the Territorial Army (reserve force), must undergo officer training at RMAS – no officer serves in the

British Army whose *alma mater* is not RMAS – this serves as a great unifier when it comes to accepting the customary principles and values of an institution.

Students also arrive at RMAS with a certain amount of intellectual maturity, since more than 80% of the Officer Cadets are graduated. This is neither a prerequisite nor a preference of the institution, but a reflection of the society's attitude towards self-development before deciding on a career.

Having said the above, Mileham (2001:146) found that “one ... cannot judge Sandhurst's relative success, particularly in developing the intangible 'character side' [of Officer Cadets], by guessing what Officer Cadets' subjective feelings are, compared with say, those in 1960, or 1980. Sufficient data still does not exist”.

In the following section an overview of Canada's approach to leadership character development in their armed forces is given. The comparative analysis for proposing the model for South Africa will be largely based on Germany, the United Kingdom and South Africa, but certain elements of the Canadian approach are useful as will be explained in Chapter 6.

4.4 MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN CANADA

The Canadian Forces have developed over a period 400 years, from the early 1600s to today. The initial use of the force was to defend Québec City, and the character of the force was influenced over time by typical colonisation; first by the French and later by the English (Canada, www.forces.gc.ca, 2008).

This section will firstly give an overview of the current Canadian Forces' selection process of their Candidate Officers, and secondly their approach to leadership character development will be discussed.

4.4.1 Officer Selection in the Canadian Forces

Similar to Germany, the Canadians do not attach as high a degree of importance to the selection of their candidate officers as the United Kingdom does; that is not to say that they do not deem the process important, but the United Kingdom is in a different league when it concerns the selection of officer material.

The Canadian Forces basically follow the same process as Germany's *Bundeswehr*. Applications are processed at Canadian Forces Recruitment Centres which are situated in major cities throughout Canada. According to Canada's Department of National Defence (2000:30-1) the processing of applicants is a blend of multiple hurdle and compensatory models. Eight hurdles must be overcome for an applicant to be enrolled as a Candidate Officer. The eight hurdles are:

- **Basic Eligibility Check.** Applicants must be between the minimum and maximum ages for enrolment. The minimum age is 16, and the maximum age depends on the specific occupation – the successful applicant must be able to complete the time requirement for the specific occupation. They must be Canadian citizens with no obligations to the judicial system outstanding, and be willing to comply with the policy on discrimination, harassment and racism.
- **Canadian Forces Aptitude Test.** This screening measure is used to ensure candidates demonstrate a minimum level of cognitive ability. The three areas of verbal ability, spatial ability and problem solving ability are tested. The screening takes about an hour to administer.
- **Reliability Check.** A reliability check is done on candidates who passed the aptitude test and includes a check of criminal records and a credit check.
- **Medical Test.** The six factors of visual acuity, colour vision, hearing, geographical limitations (effect of environment on the individual and medical

care available), occupational limitations (physical or mental disabilities *versus* the requirement of duties) and the air factor (medical limitations *versus* requirements of aircrew) are tested.

- **Selection Interview.** The selection interview is normally carried out by two Military Career Counsellors. A Career Counsellor is a junior officer from the Canadian Forces' operational side who undergoes specialised training in the skills of recruitment, and will serve between three and five years at a Recruiting Centre before returning to the operational occupation. The following attributes are assessed during the interview:

- Academic Achievement
- Accepting Criticism
- Conformity to Rules
- Initiative
- Motivation towards the Canadian Forces
- Oral Communication
- Performance under Stress
- Perseverance
- Physical Endurance
- Team-work

- Learning Potential
- Leadership Skills

The Recruiter's Handbook used by the Military Career Counsellors (Canada's Department of National Defence, 2000:30-2) explains Leadership Skills as:

- Willingness to assume responsibility for group activity and performance
- Ability to prepare and plan group activities
- Effective communication to a group
- Ability to direct and organise others towards the completion of a task
- Ability to stimulate high group morale and performance
- Ability to resolve disputes and maintain group harmony

After the interview, the Military Career Counsellors draw up a report of each candidate and forward it to a centralised selection board.

- ***Fitness Test.*** All applicants must pass a fitness test to be eligible for selection as a Candidate Officer. The test is designed to assess physical endurance, strength and aerobic fitness and is conducted by contractors registered with the Canadian Society of Exercise Physiologists.
- ***The Centralised Selection Board.*** The files of applicants are appraised by the Centralised Selection Board of the relevant Recruitment Centre. The Board is made up of members of the specific occupation which the candidate applied for, as well as a member from an unrelated occupation, termed an

“honest broker” (to enhance objectivity). The Board compiles a merit list of candidates in a rank order of applicants’ suitability, and forwards the list to the Canadian Forces Recruiting Service Headquarters.

- ***The Canadian Forces Recruiting Service Headquarters.*** The various selection boards’ merit lists are used by the final decision-making body, the Canadian Forces Recruiting Services Headquarters, to ultimately determine who is suitable for enrolment.

The Canadian Forces officer selection process is characterised by the multiple hurdles that serve as a filtering process whereafter only suitable candidates are left. According to Canada’s Department of National Defence (2000:30-1), in the 1998-1999 fiscal year there were 1869 applicants for officer selection in the Regular Forces, of which 842 (45%) were enrolled after the selection process.

The following section will outline the approach of the Canadian Forces with regards to leadership character development.

4.4.2 The Canadian Forces’ Approach to Leadership Character Development

Canada deems the development of leadership in their armed forces as an important component in the overall professional development of their military leaders. Their Canadian Forces Leadership Institute (via the Canadian Defence Academy) developed a Professional Development Framework (under the auspices of Canada’s Minister of National Defence) with the view to enhancing effectiveness in the Canadian Forces’ leadership. The Framework (Walker, 2006:1) was concluded in September 2006, and is heavily laden with leadership issues.

4.4.2.1 The Canadian Forces' Professional Development Framework

The Framework's focus is on generating effectiveness in the Canadian Forces leadership cadre. It recognises the importance of comprehending the institutional milieu in which military leaders function, and its congruence with the leaders themselves in order to achieve Institution-Leadership Effectiveness. An integrated equation of Institution-Leadership Effectiveness can be portrayed as (Walker, 2006:1 – 56):

$$\text{Institution-Leadership Effectiveness} = \text{Institutional Effectiveness} + \text{Leadership Effectiveness}$$

where

$$\text{"Institutional Effectiveness} = \text{Organizational Effectiveness} + \text{Professional Effectiveness"} \text{ (Walker, 2006:16)}$$

and

$$\text{Leadership Effectiveness} = \text{evolution through development of leader elements and leader attributes}$$

In other words, to achieve Institution-Leadership Effectiveness one must achieve Institutional Effectiveness as well as Leadership Effectiveness. The following paragraphs dissect the equation into meaningful parts.

- ***Institutional Effectiveness.*** Institutional Effectiveness is the sum of Organisational and Professional Effectiveness. To be Institutional Effective an understanding of the Canadian Forces responsibilities, values, expectations and the milieu in which it operates is imperative. It is stated by Walker (2006:10) that the most important purpose of the profession of arms is military

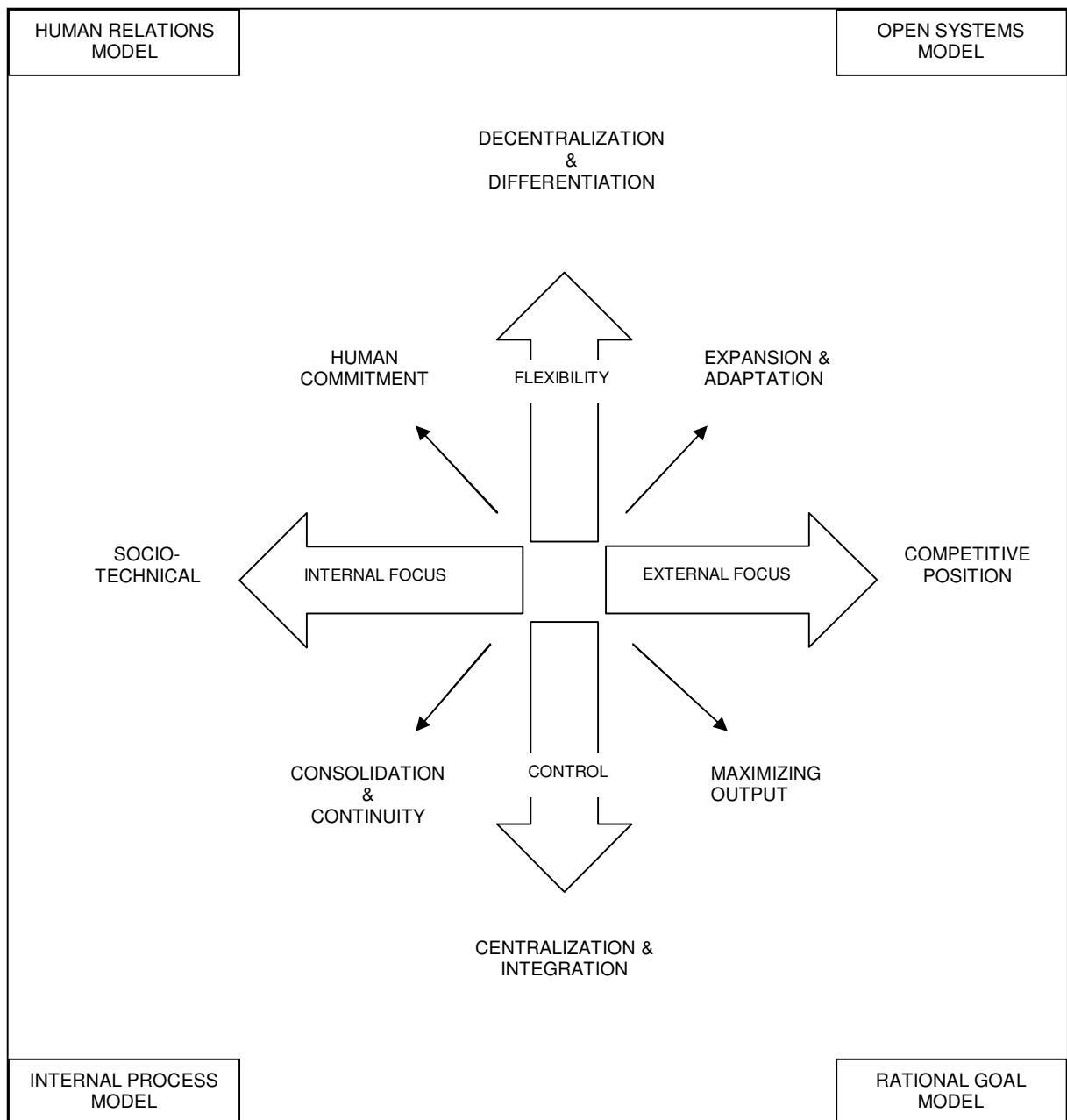
operations. The four main attributes are responsibility, expertise, identity and military ethos. Activities are conducted within the ever developing milieu of rights and dispositions of the Canadian society, under the direction and control of the Canadian government, while being in line with ethical, legal and societal norms and professional values. Professional principles of relevance, openness, consistency and reciprocity provide direction for leaders working within the governance structure.

With regards to Organisational Effectiveness, the Canadian Forces make use of Quinn's Competing Values Model (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations*, 2005:33). The Model (see Figure 4.3) incorporates four major models of organisational theory, and accepts that organisations denote aspects of all four models in different degrees, depending on the type of organisation and the situation it operates in. Each of the four models also has value for an organisation, but there is a warning that too much dependence on a particular model can have the opposite effect of good. The four models are (Walker, 2006:13):

- Rational Goal – concern for task accomplishment and measures effectiveness in terms of productivity and success (favoured by military forces).
- Human Relations – commitment of and to people; morale and social cohesion are important.
- Internal Process – internally focussed; gives emphasis to control and internal stability; clearly defined authority and responsibilities; members advance on objective merit (favoured by military forces).

- Open Systems – appreciates the organisation's interaction with its environment; effectiveness depends on adaptability; externally focussed.

Figure 4.3: COMPETING VALUES MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS



Source: Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations*, 2005:33

The Model assumes that contradiction and conflict are recurring and natural features as organisations drift between the four quadrants with their different values. The example given (in Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations*, 2005:33) is that an organisation may demonstrate a preference for maintaining effective control over internal processes because it values smooth operations and timely achievement of goals, when at the same time being confronted with changing circumstances in a changing environment. While the new challenges bring risks for decision makers, bureaucracies are not well adapted for dealing with risky situations. Similarly, organisations can be confronted with a play off between maximizing operational effectiveness on the one hand, and the intention to invest in and retain their people on the other hand. An opposite competing-value orientation is thus present in each model of effectiveness.

The above discussion addressed the institutional aspect of Institutional-Leadership Effectiveness. The following section addresses the Leadership side of the equation, and includes the character side of leadership.

- **Leadership Effectiveness.** Walker (2006:21) accepts that defence institutions in Western societies are changing rapidly, and that it is the military leader who has the ability to merge the requirements of an effective leader (one with the appropriate leadership character) with the requirements of an effective institution who will be the ultimate military leader.

Walker (2006:28) identifies a five-element cluster of indispensable leader capacities. The five leader elements embrace sixteen leader attributes, and the intensity of entrenching the leader elements and attributes will progress and adapt as the soldier progresses through four leader levels, the junior, intermediate, advanced and senior level (see Table 4.2). The five elements and sixteen attributes represent the minimum but sufficient number required of

military leaders regardless of level, rank, role, goals or responsibilities. Coupled to the attributes, the leader has to become skilled in certain competencies (such as dealing with performance assessments or doing succession planning) to a degree determined by his/her rank, position or leader level.

Table 4.2: THE LEADER FRAMEWORK – FIVE ELEMENTS, SIXTEEN ATTRIBUTES

FIVE LEADER ELEMENTS	SIXTEEN LEADER ATTRIBUTES WITHIN FIVE LEADER ELEMENTS (ATTRIBUTES IN BOLD) The focus, scope and magnitude of competencies for responsibilities related to the leader attributes will vary with rank, leader level and position; and usually increase with time in rank and seniority.
EXPERTISE	Expertise consists of Specialists (Military Occupation Classification) and Technical (clusters such as combat arms, sea trades and aircrew) proficiencies; an understanding and development of the Military and Organisational environments; and the practice and eventual stewardship of the profession of arms, with the capacities to represent and transform the system through applications at the Strategic and Institutional levels.
COGNITIVE CAPACITIES	Cognitive Capacities consist of a problem-solving, critical, Analytic “left-brain” competence to think and rationalize with mental discipline in order to draw strong conclusions and make good decisions; plus an innovative, strategic, conceptually Creative “right-brain” capacity to find novel means, “outside the box” ends, and previously undiscovered solutions to issues and problems.
SOCIAL CAPACITIES	Social Capacities consist of sincere and meaningful behavioural Flexibility to be all things to all people, with sincerity, combined with Communication skills that clarify understanding, resolve conflict and bridge differences. These capacities are blended with Interpersonal proficiency of clarity and persuasiveness, Team relationships that create coordination, cohesion, trust and commitment, and Partnering capabilities for strategic relations building.
CHANGE CAPACITIES	Change Capacities involve Self -development, with risk and achievement, to ensure self-efficacy; Group -directed capacities to ensure unit improvement and group transformation; all with an understanding of the qualities of a Canadian Forces-wide Learning Organisation and applications of a learning organisation philosophy, and the capacity of strategic knowledge management.
PROFESSIONAL IDEOLOGY	Professional Ideology consists of an acute awareness of the unique, theory-based, discretionary body of knowledge at the core of the profession with an Internalized Ethos whose values and beliefs guide the application of that knowledge. The discretionary nature of military knowledge requires keen judgement in its use and involves Moral Reasoning in thinking and acting, shaped by the military ethos. Professional ideology underpins a leader exemplar with Credibility/Impact who displays character, openness, assertiveness and extroversion that ensures the necessary effect by and from the leader.

Source: Walker, 2006:28

The leader element that actually addresses leadership character is Professional Ideology with its three attributes of Internalized Ethos, Moral Reasoning and Credibility/Impact.

The above discussion illustrated the Canadian Forces perspective on how to achieve Institution-Leadership Effectiveness; effective leaders will comprehend the fundamental nature of and strive towards an effective institution, and a military institution can only be effective through professionally developed leaders. The next section will further examine leadership character development in the Canadian Forces.

4.4.2.2 The Canadian Forces' Guidelines on Leadership Development

Leadership character is dealt with in Canadian Forces publications such as a) *Duty with Honour: The Profession of Arms in Canada*, b) *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine*, c) *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations* and d) *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Leading People*.

The first-mentioned publication (Canada. *Duty with Honour: The Profession of Arms in Canada*, 2003), is directed by the Chief of Defence Staff to serve as a cornerstone document within the professional development system of the Canadian Forces. It serves as a mechanism not only to acquaint serving members with the fundamental purpose of the Canadian profession of arms and a common understanding of the military ethos, but, importantly, also to create a relationship of trust between the Canadian Forces and the people of Canada. The Canadian Military Values are stated in this publication as (Canada. *Duty with Honour: The Profession of Arms in Canada*, 2003:16):

- **Duty.** The driving force which should guide all actions of military members is a sense of duty. It is seen as a core value and implies that members of the

military should demonstrate initiative, discipline and dedication, while adhering to the law of armed conflict.

- **Loyalty.** The Canadian Forces relate this value to duty, and state that enduring loyalty is not a one-sided affair, but based on mutual trust regardless of rank. It includes personal allegiance to Canada, faithfulness to each other and acceptance of the rule of law.
- **Integrity.** Members of the Canadian Forces should demonstrate unwavering commitment to moral principles. Members can not avoid being responsible for their actions, and the values in support of this core value include honesty, truthfulness and uprightness.
- **Courage.** Courage, which implies both physical and moral courage, is an essential quality to be exhibited by members of the Canadian Forces. Physical courage being bravery in the face of a physical threat, such as a soldier confronting enemy fire to save a fallen comrade. Moral courage is when a soldier persists in doing the right thing, regardless of what the consequences will be to oneself and in spite of the decision being unpopular.

These values embody the typical desired character traits of military leaders as identified in Chapter 3, and illustrates the importance of leadership character to the Canadian Forces.

The second publication (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine*, 2005), provides a unified doctrinal basis for all officers and non-commissioned members' training and education in leadership. It is also a guide for leadership in practice for the continuum of leadership, from future leaders under training to experienced and senior leaders. Emergent leaders can take in an introduction to the Canadian Forces' view to leadership, while experienced leaders are provided with areas of additional study and development. The publication also highlights unique

strategic and professional responsibilities for senior leaders, and provides a framework to assist them in developing the next generation of leaders. The scope of the manual encompasses concepts such as the definition of leadership, the importance of trust and the difference between leadership, command and management. The Canadian Forces Leadership Model is also explained and contains the desired characteristics of military leadership and a preference for transformational leadership (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:480; Steers *et al*, 1996:630; McCauley *et al*, 1998:407) (Chapter 2). Information is provided on influencing people to accomplish missions and tasks, as well as on the strategic level of leading the institution. The publication is not so much orientated towards leadership character development as it is on the education of leadership as a concept for mission success. It, however, accentuates the Canadian Forces' fervour for leadership development in general.

The third (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations*, 2005) and fourth (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Leading People*, 2007) publications elaborate on the second to highlight the changing security environment in the global theatre, and the importance of values and the behaviour of leaders to specify what Canadian Forces leaders *ought* to do. The importance of people in the whole leadership concept is given considerable thought and it expands on practices to equip leaders to ensure the well-being of their people and build effective teams in an ethical and effective fashion. A pocket-sized summary of the fourth publication is provided as a quick reference to the leadership doctrine, and the core military values of duty, loyalty, integrity and courage are once again highlighted (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Leading People, Summaries*, 2007:7).

All the above publications were developed by the Canadian Forces' research, development and publishing directorate, called the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute (a directorate of the Canadian Defence Academy). This (the Institute) is an important component of their overall leadership development approach and could feature in other countries' models for military leadership character development.

To conclude, the Canadian Forces are focussed on achieving the military mission. To achieve the mission one needs an effective military institution, and the institution can only attain effectiveness through effective leadership. Effective leadership is the result of professional leadership development which includes the development of leadership character.

It is clear that armed forces over the world (Germany, United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa (South Africa's armed forces are discussed in Chapter 5) all acknowledge and express (or imply) the need to “convert” ordinary citizens into soldiers when they enter the military milieu – that is without doing away with the affiliation of still being a citizen of one's country. This is strong confirmation of the distinctiveness of being a member of an armed force, and warrants specific research on the development of leadership character in the armed forces.

4.5 SUMMARY

The Federal Republic of Germany developed a system (*Innere Führung*) in their armed forces to overcome unique societal challenges. The first challenge was to transform the armed force into an institution that is not alienated from society, but accepted as a needed and respectable part of German society. A further challenge was to integrate two armed forces with different backgrounds into one defence force. *Innere Führung's* application after the integration process minimizes uncertainty and vagueness about acceptable conduct and society's expectations from soldiers of the *Bundeswehr*.

The German model allows considerable latitude for subordinate soldiers to participate in decision-making processes and to learn from mistakes – this is viewed as an important part of a young leader's development.

German society places a high premium on their liberty and rights, as made clear in their Basic Law. The principles of *Innere Führung* mirror the values embedded in the Basic Law to such an extent that soldiers of the *Bundeswehr* are expected to not only be aware of it, but to live these principles in practice. The day-by-day living of these principles and values of *Innere Führung* forms the basis of the German armed forces' leadership character building.

The British Army is more content that young entrants to their armed force inherently possess the necessary traits and attributes expected from military leaders. Their specialized selection process provides the training institution with the most suitable candidates who already have the necessary leadership character traits to build on. Most Officer Cadets also have a stable level of intellectual maturity, since the vast majority of them are already graduates when entering the officer training course. The Army further ensures shared principles and values by having each and every officer of the British Army go through training at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst as a prerequisite for commissioning.

The Canadian Forces publish extensively on leadership issues, and do not separate leadership from the milieu in which it is applied. In other words the international and national environments supply the arena in which military leaders operate, and effective leaders shape military institutions to become effective in accomplishing military missions. Leadership character wise, the Canadian Forces seek to develop military leaders who possess the core military values of duty, loyalty, integrity and courage.

Where Germany and Canada place a high premium on prescriptive documents and literature, the United Kingdom relies on its comprehensive officer selection process and builds upon that with a long-established method of leadership development.

The next Chapter will emphasize the South African military environment and its current endeavours to develop leadership character in young leaders.

CHAPTER 5

THE CURRENT LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT STATE OF AFFAIRS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MILITARY

*“You have enemies? Good. That means you have stood up for something, sometime
in your life.”*

Winston Churchill

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Knowledge about the current state of affairs with regards to leadership character development in the South African military environment is a vital prerequisite for developing a model. One must be aware of the milieu in which the model will operate to ensure a viable proposition, as well as to enable a proper comparative analysis of similar international arenas.

The first part of Chapter 5 explores the SADF's role and application during the era of separate development and racial discrimination, and builds towards the point of integrating previous enemies and relative strangers into one SANDF.

Statutory authority stands central to all government policies, and must not only be adhered to, but any values embedded in national policies must be strived towards. Hence the focus of the next part is on statutory guidelines to serve as a foundation for leadership character development policies and practices in the SANDF. This is followed by current policies of leadership development in the SANDF, and more specifically the South African Army (SA Army). The reason is that the SA Army is by far the largest service, and officership and the development of officers' leadership character is a common feature of all four services of the SANDF. Leadership development in the SA Army is thus representative of the broader SANDF.

The third part of the chapter is dedicated to the practical application of the theory, where two SANDF units are examined to determine what transpires hands-on in the South African military environment pertaining to leadership character development. The one unit (SA Army Gymnasium) is an Army unit, whereas the other unit (South African Military Academy) is a multi-service unit where all services and corps of the SANDF are represented.

5.2 THE EMERGENCE OF A DEFENCE FORCE FOR ALL

One cannot attempt to propose a model for the development of leadership character in the SANDF without tracing the origins of the current South African military force. The fact that the SANDF is an assemblage of eight different armed forces contributes to the character of the force itself, and should be acknowledged in the proposed model.

5.2.1 The Epoch of Securocrats

During the previous political dispensation (1948 to 1994) of the National Party (NP), the SADF was the statutory defence force of South Africa. Similar to the German experience explained in Chapter 4, the majority of South Africans did not affiliate with the SADF, as it was a defence force that served the interest of a White minority. In fact, the SADF was employed by the Government to suppress the rights and freedoms of the vast majority of South Africans. Coleman (1990:1) is of the opinion that the oppressing character of the South African security forces had its roots in the Suppression of Communism Act 1950 (No 44 of 1950). This Act was promulgated to further the Government's belief system of separate development and racial discrimination. The Soviet Union was perceived as the main external threat, aspiring to establish its communist activities in South Africa, and internally bringing the suppressed majority into play to further the communist cause. This gave rise to what the then South African Government termed the "Total Onslaught", and their strategy to counter it was known as the "Total Strategy" (Coleman, 1990:2; Cock, 1989:5).

The institution that was established to manage and coordinate the “Total Strategy” was the National Security Management System (NSMS), engaging the SADF and the South African Police (SAP) as the key role players (Cock, 1989:7). This culminated in the era of securocrats, or stated otherwise as the militarization of South Africa at political level. Frankel is quoted by Cock (1989:6) to explain the militarization at political level as:

“Militarization is always measured by the appearance of soldiers as public decision-makers and the growing influence of the South African military is finally and perhaps most importantly reflected in the penetration of top government institutions by Defence Force personnel, on either a formal or informal basis.”

This concept of militarization at political level is further explained by Lowy and Sader (in Cock, 1989:7) when they state that it need not be overtly observable, but if the military in a discreet way exercises control over the political decision makers it constitutes militarization at political level. The South African example (which is explained below) of such a situation is the NSMS’s control over South African society as a whole from the early 1970s to the late 1980s.

Williams (2000:102) puts it that the alliance between the National Party and the SADF steadily eroded political control over the Defence Force. Adding to this, Grundy (in Cock, 1989:7) states that the State Security Council (SSC) of the NSMS “replaced the cabinet as the most influential decision-making body”. The “Total Strategy” impacted on virtually the whole of South African society, as all White males were conscripted for an initial two-year continuous military service, followed by compulsory military camps spread over twelve years. The rest of society, of which Blacks were (and are) the vast majority, stood at the receiving end of the strategy (Grundy in Cock, 1989:7). To emphasize the influence the SADF had on the South African

community as a whole, a short discussion on the components of the “Total Strategy” is offered (Coleman, 1990:3-6):

5.2.1.1 Security Legislation

The declaration of a State of Emergency was made possible by the Public Safety Act 1953 (No 2 of 1953), which entitled the security forces to exercise a wide range of powers on a mass scale, without the fear of being prosecuted, and effectively keeping the media at bay.

The Internal Security Amendment Act 1976 (No 79 of 1976) replaced the Public Safety Act 1953 (No 2 of 1953), and legalized the unpleasant incidents of detaining people without trial, together with the banning of persons, organisations, gatherings and publications, and the imprisonment of political activists (Coleman, 1990:3-6).

5.2.1.2 Security Management

The SSC, dubbed by Coleman (1990:4) as a “secretive super-cabinet” (similar to Grundy in Cock, 1989:7) was effectively the headquarters of the security system. During this period formal control over the military was brought to an end by the militarization of the Ministry of Defence (the Secretariat for Defence was closed down, with no civilian control over defence matters as the ensuing result) (Williams, 2000:103). The SSC managed national security by gathering intelligence via a network of subordinate structures on provincial, district and local level. These structures were not manned only by SADF, SAP and National Intelligence members, but also by members of the business community and town councils (Coleman, 1990:4). The measures used to maintain the minority rule and apartheid system ranged from detention, restriction, banning, spying, monitoring and harassment to vigilante groups and hit squads.

To illustrate the SADF's involvement, some statistics by Cock (1989:8) reveal that during 1985 alone 35 000 troops were deployed throughout the country. For a single operation in 1984, 7 000 troops were used to cordon off the township of Sebokeng with the purpose of executing house-to-house searches and making arrests. Furthermore, the SADF was employed to evict rent defaulters during the suppressed masses' rent boycott. During the school boycotts of 1985 and 1986, soldiers were used to occupy school classrooms in an effort to enforce a curfew which compelled school children to stay in classrooms during school hours, and military escorts to ablution facilities were supposedly common. In August 1985 800 children, some as young as seven years old, were arrested for breaking one of these curfews. Other suppressing steps by the SADF included the invasion of health clinics to identify the injured, maintaining apartheid on beaches, and inhibiting resistance to homeland independence.

5.2.1.3 Vigilantes

The origin of vigilante groups can be traced to the apartheid structures of homeland authorities and Black local authorities. The argument is that vigilantes had vested interests in these structures, and would take the law into their own hands against any threat in order to protect those structures. Cock (1989:9) explains Haysom's definition of vigilantes as to be factions within Black communities, not officially recognised, but to an extent politically directed, seeing that they counteracted organised attempts to oppose apartheid structures. Although the SADF and other security forces did not overtly support the vigilantes, it is their reluctance to restrain the groups' violent activities that was viewed as their supporting role (Coleman, 1990:3-6).

5.2.1.4 Hit Squads

The assassination of anti-apartheid political figures, bombing of anti-apartheid organisations' offices and extreme harassment of individuals became evident during the mid 70s and especially the 80s. It was always suspected that state security forces

were engaged in these activities, and in 1989 it was revealed that the SADF's Special Forces Division (among other security forces) was indeed actively involved (Coleman, 1990:3-6).

The above discussion is an attempt to encapsulate the milieu in which South Africa's statutory defence force functioned before the 1994 integration of several statutory and non-statutory armed forces.

5.2.2 The Integration of Eight Armed Forces

Negotiations to integrate the five statutory forces (SADF and the armies of Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC)) and the three non-statutory forces (MK, APLA and the KwaZulu Self Protection Forces) were set in motion a short while before the 1994 election. The TBVC countries came into existence after South Africa granted independence to the homelands of the Xhosas (Transkei and Ciskei), Tswanas (Bophuthatswana) and Vendas (Venda). Transkei gained independence in 1976, Bophuthatswana in 1977, Venda in 1979 and Ciskei in 1981. The TBVC countries were re-incorporated into South Africa after the 1994 elections (Mills & Wood, 1992:1-4).

According to Mashike (2007:605) the multi-party political negotiations (in preparation for the 1994 election) began in 1990, followed by formal and official negotiations to transform the armed forces in March 1993. The initial planning for the future SANDF was undertaken by the Joint Military Co-ordinating Council that comprised members from the five statutory forces and MK. APLA and the KwaZulu Self Protection Force entered into an agreement with the SANDF at a later stage (Mortimer, 1995:1; Modise, 2008:5). The numbers concerned in the integration process was estimated as shown in Table 5.1. The number of KwaZulu Self Protection Force members to be integrated is not sure, but in 2001 they accounted for 1 608 members of the SANDF (Abrahams, 2001:4). It is important to note that the largest armed force, the SADF, consisted mostly of White members with a minority of Blacks, Coloureds and Indians,

while all the other forces were made up mostly of Black members. Menon & Kotze (2007:72) state that the various population groups differed in socio-economic status for historical reasons.

Table 5.1. NUMBERS OF ARMED FORCES INTEGRATED TO FORM THE SANDF

Armed Force	Numbers
APLA	6 000
MK	29 000
SADF	85 000
TBVC Armies	11 000

Source: Mortimer, 1995:2

5.2.2.1 Absorption *versus* Integration

Different authors (Mashike, 2007:608; Modise, 2008:2; Williams, 2000:107) agree on the perceived fear that the statutory forces, with the SADF by far the largest of the five, would simply engulf the new political regime's non-statutory forces. This fear was brought about by realities such as the sheer size of the statutory forces, and their organisational, budgetary and skills superiority (Modise, 2008:3). Cawthra in Mashike (2007:601) has the same opinion about the prominence of the SADF when he states that the "SADF training, doctrine, personnel procedures, structures and equipment formed the basis of the new SANDF". Williams (2000:106) argues that although the ANC was at political-strategic level the superior role player, the military negotiations was dominated by the SADF. He states that "the SADF's influence over the process was most manifest in its virtual monopoly of formal staff skills and strategic management concepts, its keen sense of bureaucratic politics, and its longstanding familiarity with the practical, conceptual, strategic and doctrinal issues underpinning the Strategic Planning Process and the force design options it generated" (Williams, 2000:107).

5.2.2.2 Integration, Transformation and Rationalization

According to Modise, J. (1998:3) and Modise, T. (2008:7) specific and planned events since 1994 ensured that the purported absorption into the SADF was changed to balanced integration. One of the factors that eventually caused a shift in the power balance in the SANDF was the Ministry of Defence and the newly re-established Defence Secretariat's proficient dealing with Defence White Paper and Defence Review processes. Williams (2000:110) states that the interaction and consultation between the Ministry of Defence and parliament's influential new Joint Standing Committee on Defence (JSCD) made the Defence White Paper the result of a markedly more inclusive process than any White Paper before, and therefore more legitimate. To reiterate the spirit of consultation and interaction, he further comments that the Defence Review process of July 1995 even surpassed the inclusiveness associated with the Defence White Paper.

This brings forward the role that Parliament played in the power-balancing process. Parliament was adamant that the Minister of Defence had to provide evidence that integration as opposed to absorption was prevalent. They also discarded the notion that only former non-statutory force officers, and not former SADF officers, needed training to be integrated into SANDF posts. A further important policy amendment ascribed to Parliament was the changing of the language of instruction, command and control in the SANDF from predominantly Afrikaans to English only (Modise, 2008:8).

One more step was to replace the Chief of the SANDF, General Meiring (former SADF) with General Nyanda (former MK) in 1998 (Modise, 1998:3). This set off the resignation of a large number of generals of the so called "old guard" (general officers whose loyalties can be traced back to P.W. Botha and his era of securocrats) (Modise, 2008:9). These resignations brought the opportunity for them to be replaced with two groupings, the first being general officers from the former SADF who were recognised as being dedicated to democratic transformation, and the second

grouping were a combination of general officers from the former non-statutory forces who were by now adequately qualified.

Due to the fact that the SADF was not disbanded during the integration process, but rather used as the base to set the process in motion, it stands to reason that the new-found integrated force exceeded the required number of members by far. About 130 000 soldiers were to be integrated, with the need for the future strength as calculated in 1994 about 90 000 (Mashike, 2007:606; Mortimer, 1995:2). This indicated that about 40 000 soldiers had to be retrenched, with allowance made for natural attrition via retirements, resignations, discharges and deaths – in other words 40 000 minus the number of natural attrition had to be retrenched. Provision was also made to enable and assist MK and APLA soldiers who did not wish for a career in the SANDF to be successfully re-integrated into society.

The SANDF also has to meet the representation targets in terms of gender and race. The baseline targets are stated in the South Africa Business Guidebook 2006/07 as 65 percent Black, 10 percent Coloured, 0.75 percent Indian and 24 percent White. The latest available information indicates that the total numbers of SANDF personnel was 76 969 on 31 March 2005, with 63,09% Black, 12,64% Coloured, 1,3% Indian and 22,96% White members. The SANDF seems to be on track with its representation targets with Blacks and Whites slightly under the target, and Indians and Coloureds slightly over. These targets will most probably be adapted in the future to reflect the South African population which was 79,47% Black, 8,86% Coloured, 2,46% Indian and 9,21% White in 2006 (SA Survey, 2007:6, 482).

This delineates the environment in which the SANDF finds itself; an integrated force made up of four population groups, each with historical roots in South Africa, and each with varying types of socio-economic background. Black members make up the vast majority, and they were historically the most under-privileged group, where Whites used to be the most privileged (Menon & Kotze, 2007:72).

5.2.2.3 The Influence of Integration on the South African National Defence Force

Important research results concerning SANDF members' perceptions on the influence that the integration process had on them were published by Menon & Kotze (2007:71 - 94). They included 2 212 SANDF members from various units in their survey in an attempt to test the following hypotheses (based on the premise that integration was successful) with regards to inter alia racial integration (Menon & Kotze, 2007:75):

- "An individual's race will not be significantly related to his or her (a) perceived *control*, (b) perceived *competence*, or (c) *goal internalization*.
- An individual's race will not be significantly related to (a) the *responsibilities delegated* to him or her or (b) the extent to which he or she is *consulted* on work-related issues.
- An individual's race will not be significantly related to his or her (a) *job involvement* or (b) *organizational commitment*."

Their findings (Menon & Kotze, 2007:87) revealed that Black respondents perceived themselves to be more incompetent than their White colleagues. One of the explanations offered for this perception is the outcome of fast-tracking of Black officers, with Black officers spending a comparatively short time in a rank before being promoted in order to meet the representation goals. Correlated to this, White soldiers were of the opinion that the standards of military courses were lowered to ensure that enough Blacks pass to fill senior positions. Black members also responded that the affirmative appointments in senior positions after only limited experience, without affirmation of skills and *competence* affected them negatively.

According to Menon & Kotze (2007:88), the greater part of senior positions is still occupied by Whites, and they are also the majority of occupants in key positions such as finance, planning and *control*. This is a reason given for Blacks expressing less satisfaction on being in *control*. It is also speculated that White officers' stance on the fast-tracking of Blacks give them the perception that they are more efficient than their Black colleagues and therefore are reluctant to *delegate responsibilities* to Black subordinates. "Black interviewees did allude to a continued reliance on Whites to produce technically challenging outputs on short notice, and ... did report lower scores on the subscales 'delegated responsibilities' and 'consulted by superior'" (Menon & Kotze, 2007:88).

The areas where Whites scored significantly lower than their Black counterparts were *goal internalization* and *job involvement*. The suggestion is that Whites are disillusioned with the practice of affirmative action where Blacks are being appointed in senior positions while Whites are overlooked. To quote Esterhuyse in Menon & Kotze, (2007:88): "Whites could be disheartened by what they perceive as the sacrifice of merit and efficiency – a characteristic of a bureaucratic military world".

Malan (1995:1 – 10) also anticipated some tribulations as a result of the integration process. The SADF and TBVC armies were organised and structured for conventional warfare, whereas MK and APLA were revolutionary armies serving "unlawful" institutions. This creates conflict between officers "...who value the revolution more than the army and those who place the army above the revolution" (Malan, 1995:5). A further fact was that none of the statutory forces had experience in serving a democratic state, but were politically indoctrinated to serve the government of the day. This reality that neither the statutory nor the non-statutory forces were ideally suited to provide the appropriate military culture needed to serve a real democracy, might be regarded as giving a sort of peculiar similarity in diversity; a basis to work from.

The integration process therefore generated its own challenges for the SANDF, especially since the previously disadvantaged section of the population and previous minority in the SADF, has at present the political advantage and makes up the vast majority of the SANDF.

Section 5.2 clarified how the SANDF came into being. The next section will elucidate on how the SANDF currently approaches leadership character development.

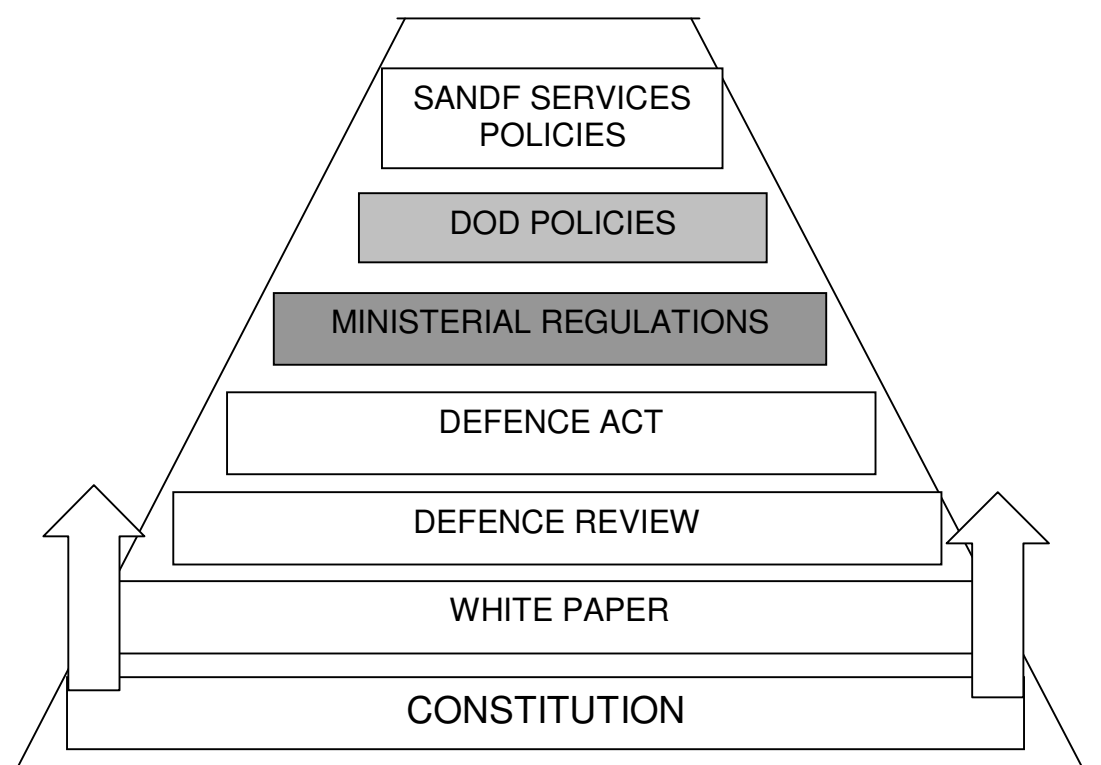
5.3 LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

This section will first explain the legislative basis on which a SANDF development policy should be founded, followed by a discussion on the SA Army's guidelines on leadership character development. The section concludes with a look at two SANDF unit's practical approaches to leadership character development.

5.3.1 Statutory Foundations for Leadership Development in the South African National Defence Force

The hierarchy of governing documents that should influence SANDF policies on leadership development is shown in Figure 5.1. In the Figure, "Ministerial Regulations" is set in a grey background to depict the absence of Ministerial Regulations pertaining to military leadership development, and therefore a gap between parliamentary legislation and departmental instructions. The Department of Defence (DOD) Policies is set in a lighter shade of grey to point out that although the DOD made a leadership development philosophy available to the SANDF Services (Army, Air Force, Navy and Military Health Services), the philosophy remains a proposed one which to date has not been declared as the DOD's official policy on leadership development.

Figure 5.1: HIERARCHY OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES



5.3.1.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 (Act 108 of 1996)

Section 2 stipulates that it is the supreme law of South Africa and that “law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid, and the obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled”. This obliterates any doubt that the content of all SANDF policies (and actions), including those dealing with leadership development, must be traceable to the Constitution.

A whole Chapter in the Constitution (Chapter 2, the Bill of Rights) is devoted to human rights, and Sections 7 (1), 7(2) and 8 (1) read:

“This Bill of Rights is a cornerstone of democracy in South Africa. It enshrines the rights of all people in our country and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom.”

“The state must respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights in the Bill of Rights.”

“The Bill of Rights applies to all law, and binds the legislature, the executive, the judiciary and all organs of state.”

Chapter 11 of the Constitution governs national security in South Africa and Sections 198(a) and 200(2) read:

“National security must reflect the resolve of South Africans, as individuals and as a nation, to live as equals, to live in peace and harmony, to be free from fear and want and to seek a better life.”

“The primary object of the defence force is to defend and protect the Republic, its territorial integrity and its people in accordance with the Constitution and the principles of international law regulating the use of force.”

The SANDF as part of the DOD falls under the ambit of public administration, and the basic values and principles governing public administration of South Africa’s state departments are found in Chapter 10, Section 195(1) of the Constitution, which reads:

“Public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following principles:

(a) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.

(b) – (g) (not included)

- (h) Good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximise human potential, must be cultivated.
- (i) Public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.”

Thus, a number of values are embedded in the Constitution, showing the way for subordinate policies on leadership character development.

5.3.1.2 White Paper on National Defence for the Republic of South Africa, 1996

In his foreword to the Government’s White Paper on Defence, the then Minister of Defence, Joe Modise (South Africa, White Paper on National Defence for the Republic of South Africa, 1996), states on the integration of the statutory and non-statutory forces “ ... many of which were once enemies-in-arms, is a powerful symbol and practical demonstration of our country’s commitment to national reconciliation and unity”.

The White Paper builds upon the values enshrined in the Constitution, and includes requirements for professionalism. Chapter 3, section 30.8 dictates the “...building of a South African military ethic based on international standards of officership, loyalty and pride in the organisation. This will serve as a basic unifying force which transcends cultural, racial and other potentially divisive factors.”

The education and training of SANDF personnel is depicted by the White Paper to be essential in the building and maintaining of a high level of professionalism. Specific education and training programmes must be developed to address the political and ethical dimensions of military professionalism with focus on a “defence in a

democracy". The mission of such a civic education programme is "to instil respect amongst military personnel and other members of the DOD for the core values of a democratic South Africa through appropriate education and training. These values ... include respect for human rights, the rights and duties of soldiers, the rule of law, international law, non-partisanship, non-discrimination, and civil supremacy over the armed forces" (White Paper, Chapter 3, Section 36). It is further prescribed that the programme should be incorporated into all education and training activities rather than being dealt with as a separate subject. An observation in the White Paper is the Minister's acknowledgment that the success of the civic education programme depends a great deal on the non-tolerance of misconduct (White Paper, Chapter 3, Section 40).

In practice the programme on civic education is presented in the form of seminars for top DOD officials, such as members of the Plenary Defence Staff Council (Generals and Chief Directors). Three such seminars took place, with the first (2001) and second (2006) on the law of armed conflict, and the third seminar's (2007) theme was "Military Professionalism in a Democracy". The intention is to hold these seminars on an annual basis (a goal not achieved), with the objective of instilling the principles of defence in a democracy (respect for human rights, rights and duties of soldiers, rule of law and civil supremacy over the armed forces) in the mindset of top decision makers (South Africa, DOD Bulletin, 2007:1).

With regards to the rights and duties of soldiers it is stipulated that soldiers will, with the normal exceptions applicable to military personnel, enjoy the same fundamental rights as civilian citizens. Military personnel are obligated to "treat civilians with courtesy and respect in the performance of their duties" (White Paper, Chapter 3, Sections 44 & 55).

5.3.1.3 The South African Defence Review, 1998

The Defence Review was approved by Parliament in April 1998. It serves as a strategic doctrine which expands on the values maintained in the Constitution and White Paper and translates the SANDF's generic functions into specific roles (Willams *et al*, 2003:164).

Chapter 1 par 36 of the Defence Review is indicative of the intent with the SANDF and states that "...the SANDF will have a primarily defensive orientation and posture. This has implications for doctrine, training and force design. For example, manifestly offensive armaments and systems have been excluded from the force design." According to Chapter 10 par 82 the Chief of SANDF (C SANDF) has power over training in the SANDF. This power is vested in terms of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) and the Defence Act 2002 (No 42 of 2002). The C SANDF's power over training extends to overall defence force training policy and includes the authority to delegate the implementation of specific training to a combat or support arm. Provision is also made for joint training where more than one of the four services' training needs to be synchronized.

5.3.1.4 The Defence Act 2002 (No 42 of 2002)

Chapter 10 Section 63(3) declares that the "...Minister must ensure that the training of members and employees of the Department promotes the objectives of, and is in accordance with, the Constitution and the law, including customary international law and international agreements binding on the Republic".

5.3.1.5 Department of Defence Policies

- **Proposed Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture**

The DOD does not have an officially approved leadership philosophy or policy on which the SANDF Services can base their own leadership development policies and practices. It does, however, have a “Proposed” Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture (DOD LCAMPS) which to date has not been presented in its final form. This proposed Philosophy is undated, but was distributed in the SANDF in the late 1990s (DOD LCAMPS, undated).

The leadership of the DOD is perceived by the members as unsound, and specifically fails in terms of trust, setting an example, transparency and concern for people. The intention with the leadership component of the proposed Philosophy is thus to address these shortcomings (DOD LCAMPS, undated:4-7).

Specific detail of the proposed Philosophy will not be described here, as the SA Army developed its leadership programme and policies on the proposed DOD Philosophy; and it addresses all aspects of the proposed Philosophy. The detail of the DOD LCAMPS Philosophy is thus incorporated in Section 5.3.2, which moves from the statutory foundations, to leadership development in practice. The SANDF Services’ policies will, for the same reason, not be discussed in this section on statutory foundations; they are included in how the SA Army approaches leadership development in practice.

- **Shared Values for the Department of Defence**

The DOD’s Corporate Communications Directorate published the shared core values of the DOD “as accepted by the Defence Staff Council” and which “are to be inculcated in the DOD” (SANDF Corporate Communications, 2008:1).

This is important for the research, as a leadership and leadership character development model for the SANDF should take cognisance of the norms and desired behaviour put forward by the SANDF, and it provides guidelines for the desired organisational culture within which such a model must be applied. The Shared Values are stated as follows (SANDF Corporate Communications, 2008:2 - 4):

Military Professionalism – In recognition of the uniqueness of the DOD, the ability to correctly perform duties through striving to constantly excel and improve the organisation and the individual's achievements. The following norms govern Military Professionalism:

Learning Culture – Creating an organisational culture that enhances learning at all levels.

Civil Military Relations – Respect of the soldier for civil authority.

Discipline – Spontaneous adherence to standards.

Ethical Conduct during Operations – Principled behaviour.

Excellence – To constantly exceed expectations.

Human Dignity – Treating others the way one expects to be treated:

Respect – To treat someone with consideration.

Tolerance – To allow for differences and to abstain from judging harshly or condemning.

Fairness – To be open-minded and impartial. Members must be committed to justice. Individuals must be treated equally.

Integrity – To be honourable and follow ethical principles. To be faithful to one's convictions:

Honesty – To seek, respect and defend the truth.

Credibility — A reputation inspiring trust and confidence.

Trustworthiness – To be reliable.

Transparency – To promote clear and unambiguous conduct in the performance of one's duties.

Leadership – To make ordinary people do extraordinary things:

Visionary Qualities – Creating and inspiring common goals and objectives.

Teamwork – To harness the abilities of individuals in a combined effort.

Caring – To be concerned and have interest in and respect for others.

Exemplary – To lead by example.

Empowerment – Enablement and trust.

Communication – To share information to promote common understanding.

Loyalty – To be faithful to one's mission/organisation:

Faithfulness – Loyal to one's promise, duty and engagements.

Comradeship – To promote companionship or camaraderie amongst soldiers.

Accountability – To be responsible for decisions and the resulting consequences. Accountability promotes careful and well thought-out decision making:

Responsibility – Accepting ownership for one's actions.

Reliability – To be trusted so that others can depend on one.

Patriotism (Country) – To be devoted to one's country, its interests, freedom and independence:

Pride – Sense of dignity, self-respect and a healthy self-esteem.

Honour – Demands adherence to a military and public moral code.

Duty – Binding force of the obligation to serve.

Service – Sacrifice for the common good.

Courage – The virtue that enables one to face fear, danger or adversity. It enables one to take responsibility for decisions and actions.

Sacrifice – Giving of oneself for the sake of one's country.

Responsible Citizenship – The civic duty to exercise discretion. To engage personal judgement in the performance of official duties so that the will of the people is respected by democratic principles.

Part of the research challenge is how to get the above values internalised to the extent that they become a way of military life. Van Rensburg (2001:196), who researched aspects of organisational culture in the SANDF, also came to the conclusion that the SANDF identifies poorly with its own values; mainly due to the ineffective manner of implementation – the method of implementation is restricted to placards on notice boards and a *Service Guide for Newcomers* handed to all new appointments in the SANDF. Although the *Service Guide for Newcomers* stipulates which unifying values should be pursued, including patriotism, honour, loyalty, integrity, courage and respect, including respect for the dignity of subordinates; the same challenge persists – no example is found where and how the Guide is internalised in the institution (Van Rensburg, 2001:92).

This concludes the section on statutory foundations for leadership development in the SANDF.

All the above-mentioned documents under section 5.3.1 must be taken into account with the drafting and implementation processes of all four SANDF Services' policies on leadership development. Similar to the explanation on the British model of leadership development (Chapter 4), the following section will focus on the SA Army's approach to leadership development; the Army being the largest service in the SANDF.

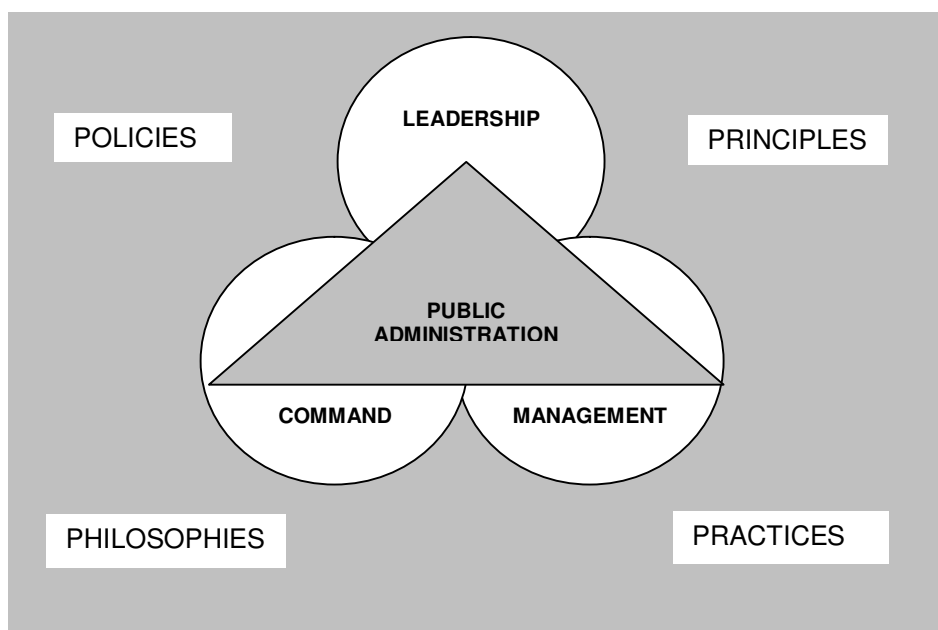
5.3.2 Leadership, Command and Management in the South African Army

The Chief of the SA Army instructed the Change Management Section of the Directorate Management and Renewal Services to implement what is termed as the

Full Range Leadership Development Programme at all levels in the SA Army. The theoretical basis of the Programme was developed under copyright of Avolio & Bass (1990), and as far as can be determined has been in operation since at least the late 1990s. The Programme includes a manual on the SA Army's leadership, command and management principles to be used by young military leaders as a field guide in practice, as well as a residential course on what the Army names Full Range Leadership (SA Army Leadership, Command and Management (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000; Basic Full Range Leadership (BFRL) Manual, undated).

The SA Army uses the Clover Model (see Figure 5.2) to distinguish between leadership, command and management. *Leadership* is defined as “unleashing the potential of people to respond to all challenges in extraordinary ways” and involves activities such as visualising, inspiring and counselling. Military leaders can find themselves in situations which call for “military leadership” – situations determined by the conditions of battle, such as danger, chance, exertion, uncertainty, apprehension and frustration. *Command*, which is strongly coupled to the military environment is defined as “the legal authority vested in a person in accordance with his or her appointment over assigned forces and/or resources in order to carry out the mission”. *Management* has its roots in the provisions and principles of public administration and is described as “applying technical skills to achieve set objectives according to set processes through the efficient and effective use of resources”, whereas *Public Administration* is the “prescriptive guidelines from government on the way in which departments of state are to be administered and managed” (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:1-1-2).

Figure 5.2: THE CLOVER MODEL OF LEADERSHIP, COMMAND AND MANAGEMENT



Source: SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:1-1-2

The Clover Model illustrates a changing environment where external and internal forces will determine where on the clover the emphasis should be. External forces will impact on internal cultures and that will sequentially shape the leadership, command and management practices in the South African military environment. In situations which require more operational tasks, the emphasis could shift to command, while changing and uncertain situations will call for more emphasis on leadership. An inclination towards management will be appropriate in situations where there are clear goals and set procedures to follow (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:1-1-3).

5.3.2.1 The South African Army: Character Traits of a Leader

The SA Army recognizes the importance of *character* in their leaders when it states the focus of the Full Range Leadership Development Programme to be on the three interrelated concepts of Leadership, Command and Management "...with emphasis

on people being influenced through character and competence to achieve a predetermined organisational outcome” (BFRL Manual, undated:i).

The character traits or qualities considered by the SA Army to be crucial in the make-up of a leader “...and that must be acquired by any person aspiring to be a leader” are listed in the SA Army LCAMPS Manual (2000:2-1-3) as:

- **Courage.** Both physical and moral courage are important. Physical courage being bravery in the face of a physical threat, such as a soldier confronting enemy fire to save a fallen comrade. Moral courage is when a soldier persists in doing the right thing, regardless of what the consequences will be to him/herself and in spite of the decision being unpopular. Although the character traits are not listed in order of priority, the SA Army does state that “courage can be viewed as the prime virtue in man” (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-1-3).
- **Judgement.** A leader must be able to evaluate situations properly and take all aspects into account before making balanced decisions in a cool and calm fashion. This quality links with courage, in the sense that the more courage and determination is demonstrated by the individual, the greater the chance for disaster if the wrong decisions are made.
- **Willpower.** Strength of will is a necessary trait that enables the leader to persuade uncooperative groups to accept his or her decisions.
- **Flexibility.** This quality enables the leader to modify his or her behaviour, actions and decisions according to the specific situation. However, there must be a balance between willpower and flexibility, and good judgement will be the key in ensuring that too much willpower and determination do not become stubbornness. The leader should also guard that too much flexibility does not turn into a weak-willed changing of one’s mind.

- **Knowledge.** A leader is expected to be one step ahead of his/her subordinates as well as the opposition. He/she must continuously learn, and rising in the hierarchy of ranks should go hand in hand with an increase in knowledge. It is expected of junior leaders to be able to do any task that is expected of their subordinates. As one rises higher in the ranks, it becomes more important to gain knowledge of the people under one's command. Knowledge about tasks stays important in the sense that one must be aware of what they entail, but it becomes impossible for senior level leaders to master all tasks. Knowledge of one's people will ensure that the proper advice is obtained from the right experts, and together with the knowledge of the leader the right decisions will be made. "It is the knowledge of one's men that turns leadership from a science into an art" (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-1-4).
- **Integrity.** It is defined as "...being honest with oneself, with one's superiors and with one's juniors" (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-1-4). Trust and respect will only be earned by leaders with integrity, and all the other traits of a leader ought to be enriched by it.

5.3.2.2 The Scope of the South African Army Leadership, Command and Management Manual

As part of the Full Range Leadership Programme, the SA Army applies a manual (based on the DOD's Proposed Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, undated) as a field guide to have on hand as a reference when needed in the practical day-to-day activities of SA Army soldiers. The Manual (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000) is divided into three sections to concur with the three focus areas of leadership, command and management:

- **Leadership.** This section describes the concept of leadership itself, defines leadership, the desired character traits of leaders and pitfalls that leaders should avoid. The SA Army discloses its conviction that the art of leadership can be taught and learned, as well as its belief that certain character traits to build on is a prerequisite to become a leader when it states:

“It is not necessary to be a ‘born leader’ but an individual must display certain qualities which can be developed to make him a leader” (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-1-5).

The section then addresses the different styles and models of leadership, and, similar to the Canadian Model (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine*, 2005) (Chapter 4) a preference is given to transformational leadership. It is claimed that “in combat, ... transformational leadership may make the difference between complete victory and overwhelming defeat” (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-2-4). This statement is clarified by an example during the 1973 Middle East War where it was later found that the Israeli soldiers who suffered from psychiatric breakdown were mostly those who did not trust their leaders, or felt that the leaders do not care about their soldiers’ wellbeing.

The leadership section also focuses on the commander as a person; the required abilities such as professional competence, maturity, thinking skills and the primary (exercising legal authority over allocated forces in conducting the mission) and supplementary (interpersonal, supplying information and decision-making) roles of the commander. Further, attention is given to morale, man-management and discipline. Morale is defined as “...a mental and moral quality ...a unit with high morale is able to face the terrors and confusion of war and to remain a disciplined and determined force”. Man-management is “the art of handling men individually and collectively” and includes the building of a relationship between the leader and follower that is

founded upon mutual confidence and respect (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-3-1, 2-3-4, 2-4-1, 2-4-2). Discipline is an important element of any statutory military force, and the application thereof in armed forces is probably one of the more discernable differences between military and civilian life. The two definitions given for discipline are:

“Discipline is the ingrained habit of cheerful and unhesitating obedience which controls and directs the fighting spirit” (Montgomery in SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-4-5).

“Discipline is which makes a man do something which he would not, unless he had learnt that it was right, the proper, and the expedient thing to do. At its best, it is instilled and maintained by pride in oneself, in one’s unit, in one’s profession; only at its worst by a fear of punishment” (Wavell in SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-2-5). Discipline ensures prompt reaction to orders on the battlefield, a feature that makes the difference between winning and losing the battle; between life and death.

The leadership section is concluded by superficial advice on how to manage oneself, one’s time and one’s own development.

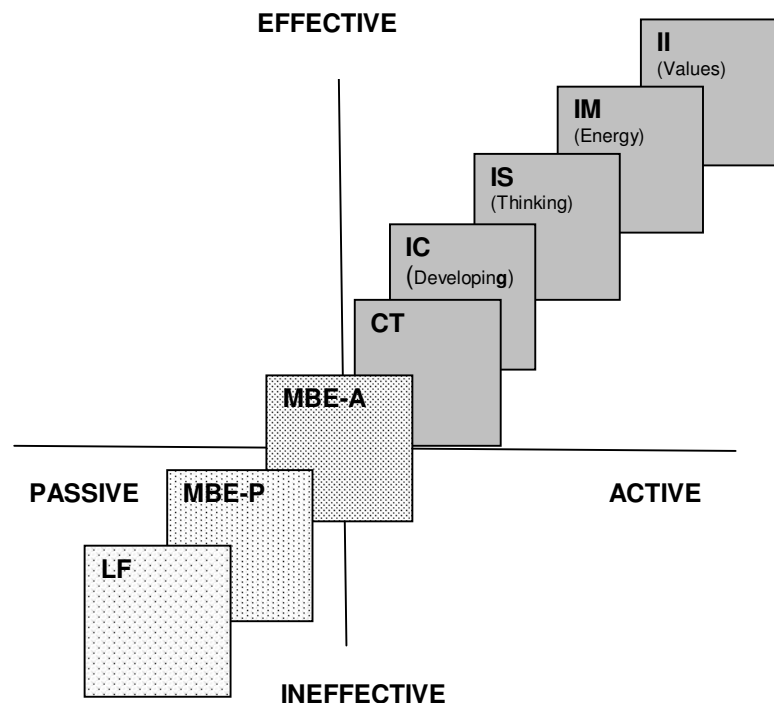
- ***Command and Management.*** Seeing that this research concentrates on leadership and the character of leaders, it is sufficient to state that the second section (Command), deals with issues such as the nature of command, the responsibility of command, critical functions of command and mission command. The third section (Management) explains concepts such as the functions of public administration and the functions of management, and is concluded with guidance on how to be a good Staff Officer who executes quality staff functions (see SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:3-1-1 – 4-3-12 for more detail on Command and Management).

5.3.2.3 The Scope of the Basic Full Range Leadership Course

The second part of the Full Range Leadership Programme is a residential course for the SA Army, called Basic Full Range Leadership (BFRL), and the weight is much on practical individual and syndicate tasks, as well as discussions of case studies. The emphasis is on transformational leadership and the course is divided into seven modules namely “Ideal” Leaders, Full Range Leadership Model, the Many Faces of Leadership, Transactional Versus Transformational Behaviours, Delegation (how, why and the importance thereof), the Many Sources of Feedback and a Leadership Development Plan (BFRL Manual, undated).

- **Module 1: “Ideal” Leaders.** This is an introductory module where students are guided to discover for themselves what the characteristics, behaviour, competencies and actions should be of the typical leader that they would prefer to follow; to put it differently, what the student’s total make-up as a leader should be.
- **Module 2: Full Range Leadership Model.** The Full Range Leadership Model’s locus can be viewed as part of the Leadership circle of the Clover Model of Figure 5.2. The Model incorporates the transactional leadership behaviours of *Laissez-Faire* (LF), Management-by-Exception (Passive) (MBE-P), Management-by-Exception (Active) (MBE-A) and Constructive Transaction (CT) as well as the transformational leadership behaviours of Individualised Consideration (IC), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), Inspirational Motivation (IM) and Idealised Influence (II) to illustrate at what stage a leader starts to become actively involved with his/her followers and therefore more effective (see Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3: THE FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP MODEL



Source: BFRL Manual, undated:2-57

Burbuto & Cummins-Brown (2007:1 - 2) and Kirkbride (2006:1 - 3) explain the relevant leadership behaviours in the BFRL Manual (undated, 2-1 – 2-79), as follows:

-Laissez-Faire. It is actually the absence of leadership, and should not be associated with a leader, but rather with a person in a leadership position. This type of manager does not want to get involved and subordinates are left to find direction and the organisation's vision anywhere but from the person in the leadership position. Subordinates often feel that this type of person does not care about them.

-Management-by-Exception (Passive). The focus is on exceptions rather than the norm. Under normal conditions these leaders are more hands-off

(*laissez-faire*), and only take action when there is a dilemma that needs to be solved, or when subordinates make mistakes. They do not foresee problems in time, and only once a problem occurs will they take action. For the most part subordinates only hear from this type of leader when there is a problem.

-Management-by-Exception (Active). These leaders also concentrate on exceptions and deviations from standards, but unlike the “passive” style, they are hands-on. They will thus always be on the lookout for possible predicaments and try and foresee what and when problems will occur. They rely on monitoring and control systems, and because of their emphasis on the negative, on what can go wrong, their subordinates tend to lack innovation and creativity.

-Constructive Transaction. This leadership behaviour is also termed *Contingent Rewards* (Burbuto & Cummins-Brown, 2007:1 and Kirkbride, 2006:2). If subordinates perform as agreed between them and the leader, they will receive a suitable reward. In other words, there is a contract between the leader and a subordinate, where the subordinate’s contractual obligation is to perform according to the standard agreed upon between the leader and the subordinate, and the leader’s counter performance is to reward the subordinate appropriately. Rewards can range from pecuniary, additional holidays and time off to a less tangible reward such as commendation. Although this leadership behaviour falls under the *transactional* category, it is held to be effective if performed properly. This style of leadership will ensure that subordinates perform satisfactory or even well in the sense that objectives will be reached, but in order to get them to perform exceptionally, a *transformational* leadership style is called for.

-Individualized Consideration. This is the first of the range of transformational leadership behaviours. These leaders come across as compassionate people who show concern for their followers. They are aware

that individuals differ in their capabilities as well as their needs, and distribute tasks accordingly. Their actions are not just superficial deeds of compassion; they sincerely care for their followers and want them to develop themselves.

-Intellectual Stimulation. This leader not only accommodates questioning by subordinates, but actively encourages it. Subordinates are emancipated to form their own opinions on matters concerning the organisation, and not to merely agree to all decisions made by the leader. Even supposedly less sophisticated ideas will be entertained by this leader, which makes it comfortable for subordinates to be imaginative and creative. The idea is to create an organisation of thinkers.

-Inspirational Motivation. This leader has an exceptional ability to inspire followers to perform even above their own expectations. The leader is a skilled communicator with the talent to put a vision into words in such a fashion that followers make it their own and believe in striving towards it. Followers of this type of leader share a strong sense of purpose among them.

-Idealized Influence. The leader sets the example by his remarkable competence and/or credible character. The leader becomes a role model because of his/her evident high morality, trust, integrity and sense of purpose. The leader takes full responsibility for his/her actions, and the followers look up to this leader and have a desire to be like him/her.

The Full Range Leadership Model recognises that all leaders display all of the above behaviours to some degree, but the more effective leaders will engage in more of the transformational behaviours than the transactional ones.

- **Module 3: The Many Faces of Leadership & Module 4: Transactional vs Transformational Behaviours.** These modules expand on Module 2 and reiterate the theory studied in Module 2 by giving the students practical

exposure to the different leadership behaviours by means of videos and role play exercises where students must discover the differences in leadership behaviours for themselves.

- **Module 5: Delegation.** This module associates the concept of delegation with all the different leadership behaviours and guides the students to discover the advantages of delegation, such as to make best use of one's own time, to challenge and develop the confidence and abilities of followers, and to speed up the decision-making process. Reservations about delegation, such as fear of being bypassed by followers, potential loss of power, and followers' resistance to assuming more responsibility without more reward, are also examined. Advice on how to make delegation more effective is also given, for example to give all the information necessary to do the task, to avoid intervening unless requested to do so by followers, and to use delegation to maximise both performance and development. The mode of training is practical individual and syndicate exercises. See Appendix B for a typical syndicate exercise on delegation.
- **Module 6. The Many Sources of Feedback.** Practical exercises and questionnaires are used by students to discover how others experience them. Students learn how others perceive their performance in accordance with what is expected of them. The module acts "as a steering or corrective mechanism for individuals who, through the process of feedback can be kept on target in terms of their own development" (BFRL Manual, undated:6-1). See Appendix C for a typical exercise on feedback.
- **Module 7: Leadership Development Plan.** The course concludes with the students being subjected to a practical experience in developing their own leadership developmental plans, using the peer feedback of Module 6. These plans are presented to co-students for discussion and constructive critique.

The aim is for the developmental plan to be applicable to the students' real time careers. See Appendix D for an example of the development plan.

The SANDF also offers workshops on Advanced Full Range Leadership (AFRL), but its scope will not be covered, as the focus of this research is on the development of young (junior) military leaders.

Similar to the explanation given in Chapter 4 on the German, British and Canadian scenarios, the following section will give an overview of officer selection in South Africa.

5.3.3 Officer Selection in the South African Army

South Africa, as Germany and Canada, is inferior to the United Kingdom with regards to the importance given and effort put into the selection process of officers.

The officer selection process of the SA Army is representative of the process in the broader SANDF. The selection boards are driven by the SANDF Human Resources (HR) Acquisition branch at SANDF Headquarters level, and the chairperson of a selection board is a representative from the same SANDF HR Acquisition; in other words the SA Army does not drive the process but the broader SANDF does (Peddle, 2008).

Civilians cannot apply to appear in front of the Officer Selection Board. They can only apply to join the SANDF as recruits, and to join they must first pass a general selection board to determine whether they match the profile of a soldier in general.

After recruits have joined the SANDF, they are assigned to various training depots throughout the country to undergo corps specific basic military training without leadership content. In the SA Army, for instance, Support Personnel troops such as logistics clerks will do their basic training at Kimberley in the Northern Cape Province

and Infantry troops will do their basic training at Oudtshoorn in the Western Cape Province.

- **The South African Army Officer Selection Board**

According to Peddle (2008), a paper selection identifies troops who comply with the minimum requirements (such as a university exemption and a sound medical record) at the various training depots and these recruits may apply to appear before the Officer Selection Board (OSB). The OSB takes place at the South African Army Gymnasium at Heidelberg in Gauteng Province, the same place where the officer formative course is presented. The OSB typically consists of a chairperson (a Colonel from HR Acquisition at SANDF Headquarters), an SA Army Headquarters representative (Lieutenant Colonel), a corps representative (Lieutenant Colonel), a certified psychologist and a secretary (Captain).

For candidates the evaluation takes about two days and includes a psychological test and an interview with the OSB. The interview is structured to confirm leadership potential, but only lasts about ten minutes per candidate, and the OSB relies heavily on the outcome of psychological tests for its decision. The members of the OSB reach consensus on what type of questions will be asked during the short interview – there are no fixed criteria that are used. The OSB's decision is not based on majority vote, but on general consensus, and the norm is that a candidate who passed the psychological tests will be selected for officer training.

Candidates selected for officer training report to the South African Army Gymnasium, which is the subject matter of the next section.

5.3.4 Leadership Character Development in Practice: The South African Army Gymnasium

The SA Army develops its young officers at the SA Army Gymnasium in Heidelberg, Gauteng Province. The vision of the unit is “to provide transformational leaders for the SA Army” (Prinsloo, 2006:1). The unit does not focus solely on officer training, and also trains prospective junior non-commissioned officers. The Officer Formative Branch’s course is called “Officer Formative for Young Officers” and its stated aim is “to equip the learners with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to be utilized as effective and efficient officers within the SANDF” (Janse van Rensburg, 2008). The duration of the course is seventeen weeks (four months) and two courses are presented per year. Similar to the United Kingdom, the unit also accommodates late entry candidates (non-commissioned officers to be commissioned) and one cannot become an officer in the SA Army without attending the course at the SA Army Gymnasium. The main focus, however, is on new entrants to the SANDF. At the beginning of the course time is allocated for more psychological tests and a selection board is held for those candidates who show the potential to undergo tertiary education at the South African Military Academy (see Section 5.3.5).

The two main modules of the course are LCAMPS (see Section 5.3.2) and Officership, which together make up 50 percent of the course. The candidates must pass these two modules to pass the course, and if they fail they must redo the whole course. The rest of the course is made up by Communication Skills, Art of War, Military Studies and Environmental Studies, and if a candidate fails any of these modules he/she only has to redo that specific module. The LCAMPS module is the SA Army’s method of complying with their vision to “provide transformational leaders”.

Over and above the normal theory on leadership, command and management, their LCAMPS module also incorporates a practical leadership training section where the candidate “must be able to practically demonstrate the ability to manage and lead a

team through simple task settings to achieve a given goal” (Janse van Rensburg, 2008). Their officership module includes the Profession of Arms in the SANDF manual, similar to the South African Military Academy (see Section 5.3.5).

Table 5.2 is compiled from the block programme of the officer formative course and gives an indication of the time spent on the various modules and activities:

Table 5.2: OFFICER FORMATIVE COURSE AT SA ARMY GYMNASIUM

WEEK	ACTIVITY
Week 1	Introduction to unit orders, Study Curriculum, Psychological Tests, Ice Breaker Exercise
Week 2	Life skills, Regimental Activities, Physical Assessment
Week 3	Military Academy Selection Board, Library Visits
Week 4	Officership (Etiquette & Profession of Arms), Physical Training
Week 5	Officership, Communication Skills, Physical Training
Week 6	Communication Skills, course break at end of week 6
Week 7	Course resumes on day 4, Communication Skills
Week 8	Communication Skills, LCAMPS, Physical Training
Week 9	LCAMPS, Physical Training
Week 10	Art of War, Regimental Activities
Week 11	Art of War, Military Studies, Environmental Studies, Physical Training
Week 12	Military Studies, Environmental Studies, Regimental Activities, Practical Leadership (Tactical Exercise Without Troops (TEWT))
Week 13	Practical Leadership (TEWT), Integrated Practical Exercise
Week 14	Integrated Practical Exercise, Night Training
Week 15	Integrated Practical Exercise, Night Training
Week 16	Environmental Studies, second course break in middle of week 16
Week 17	Environmental Studies, Regimental Activities, Physical Assessment
Week 18	Regimental Activities, Rank Parade, departure to new units

Source: Janse van Rensburg, 2008

- **Practical Leadership Development Exercises**

Candidates are exposed to two practical leadership development exercises namely Tactical Exercise Without Troops (TEWT) and Integrated Practical Exercise (IPE). The TEWT is used primarily to prepare the candidates for the IPE rather than as an exercise in itself.

In general military terms the acronym TEWT describes exercises done by commanders with their subordinate leaders, in the absence of troops (Army Study Guide, 2008:1). One may assume the SA Army Gymnasium named this exercise TEWT because in this specific case the exercise is not done with a typical military platoon structure with a platoon commander, platoon sergeant, section leaders and troops (as the IPE is done). During the TEWT, which lasts only a couple of hours, candidates are divided into syndicates, and assigned a task, such as to get equipment from one point to another with obstacles in the way, in the most effective manner and time. Typical military procedures are followed, such as receiving a warning order, planning how the exercise will be approached, giving own orders, executing the plan and exercising command and control (Janse van Rensburg, 2008).

The IPE is done over ten days during which the candidates are on foot for the whole exercise. It tests their physical endurance, and their leadership attributes are also evaluated. The candidates are divided into platoons, each platoon with a commander, second in command, three section leaders and thirty troops. Throughout the ten days these leadership positions are constantly rotated to give all candidates a chance. The candidates are constantly confronted with challenging scenarios to handle, such as that one of the troops has been bitten by a poisonous snake, or a farm house en route is under attack by armed burglars. The scenarios are designed to test the candidates' character traits such as initiative, confidence and common sense, and not to test, for example, their ability to solve crime or treat snake bites (Janse van Rensburg, 2008).

It is unfortunate that the assessment sheet used to assess the candidates' performance during the exercise could not be obtained from the SA Army Gymnasium. However, Janse van Rensburg (2008) confirms that the assessment is similar to the British assessment shown in Table 4.1, where attributes or leadership character traits such as initiative, confidence, common sense, courage and determination are assessed throughout the exercise. Further, the absence of the assessment sheet does not influence the outcome of the research, as the alternative Leadership Character Development Model discussed in Chapter 7 will be based on comparing the countries of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa and finding their best practices which can be applied in a South African model. The proposed alternative model for South Africa will be an encompassing model which does not focus on details such as assessment sheets used during practical exercises.

5.3.5 Leadership Character Development in Practice: The South African Military Academy

South Africa's Military Academy is situated at Saldanha in the West Coast region of the Western Cape Province. The researcher has been affiliated at the South African Military Academy (SA Military Academy) since 1990 and was appointed as a lecturer in 1999. Unlike the British military that has separate academies for their Army, Air Force and Navy; South Africa has only one military academy which accommodates all four of its services. The operational side of the SA Military Academy consists of the Faculty of Military Science (FMS) and the Section Military Development (SMD). The SA Military Academy's vision is to be the "world leaders in professional military training", and their mission is to "...provide professional military education through education, training, research and community interaction to manage security challenges in Africa" (SA Military Academy Strategic Business Plan, 2008:2-1). Although the SA Army Gymnasium is the designated institution for officer training, and therefore leadership character development of candidate officers, selected

candidate officers report to the SA Military Academy for tertiary education, and leadership character development forms part of the total programme offered at the Academy.

5.3.5.1 The Faculty

The FMS is a satellite faculty of Stellenbosch University and offers residential academic qualifications to candidate officers and young junior officers (up to age 25) of the SANDF. About 200 first year students report each year, of which approximately 65 are selected to carry on with a three year degree course after successful completion of the first year of study. The rest are awarded a certificate after successful completion of the first year of study and are then deployed to various units of the SANDF. The courses offered at the Faculty are (MacLachlan, 2008):

- A one-year Higher Certificate in Military Studies.
- A three-year Bachelor of Military Science degree offered in the five academic schools, which are: Defence Organisation and Resource Management; Geo-spatial Studies and Information Systems; Human Resource Development; Science and Technology and the School for Security and Africa Studies.
- Post-graduate Military Science degrees at Honours and Masters level are offered to selected students.

The FMS also accommodates distance education students (aimed at older officers without tertiary education, non-commissioned officers, private soldiers, DOD civilians and members of the part-time forces) but the main focus is on residential courses.

Although the FMS's curriculum includes theory on leadership (similar to a civilian university) in subjects such as Public and Development Management, Military Management and Industrial Psychology, its focus is on offering a broader academic

qualification. This research concentrates on more specific leadership development, which is the responsibility of the SMD.

5.3.5.2. The Section Military Development

According to Booÿjens (2008) all the SMD's activities are concentrated on leadership development of first-, second- and third-year residential students. The SMD is always represented at selection boards of Military Academy candidates, and at these selection boards they will focus on aspects such as the military bearing, disciplinary records, confidential reports of the services and the social circumstances of the candidates (as opposed to academic staff who will be interested in the academic potential of candidates). Once the selected candidates arrive at the Military Academy their professional military development is the responsibility of the SMD.

The SMD's calendar makes provision for three military terms per year, which are dispersed to accommodate the much more heavily loaded academic year. The first military term is during January and is usually presented in one week. The second term is during September and the third during December, each of them usually presented over two weeks. There are also several "military days" dispersed throughout the academic year to accommodate shooting exercises, drilling competitions, fitness tests and similar typically military activities. These *ad hoc* activities also accommodate elements of leadership development, as a student will normally be nominated to take charge of such exercises, for example, a student will be appointed to take charge of a shooting exercise. He/she will then plan the whole event, appoint appropriate positions and be responsible for the safety of the rest of the participants. In a situation such as a drilling competition, the student in charge will have to demonstrate leadership qualities to motivate his squad to excel. The activities during the three designated military terms are (Booÿjens, 2008):

- **First Military Term.** This is the induction phase for the first year students when they are introduced to life as a student at the SA Military Academy. They

are made familiar with the overall rules of the unit and the specific rules pertaining to their academic responsibility (faculty related) on the one hand and military responsibility and discipline (SMD related) on the other. They also elect their year group representative for the SA Military Academy Students' Council.

Military Academy Students' Council (MASC). The MASC is a council of students elected by students. It is responsible for the discipline of students and consists of 12 members with the following portfolios:

- Student Captain (third year student and leader of the MASC)
- Vice Student Captain
- Third Year Representative
- Second Year Representative
- First Year Representative
- Logistics Representative
- Financial Representative
- Media Representative
- Faculty Representative (sits in at Faculty Board meetings but has no voting rights)
- Cultural Diversity Representative

- Social Representative

- Regimental Representative

Other responsibilities of the MASC include coordinating the activities of the first year students' induction phase, cultural events, regimental events, sports events and the group welfare of the students.

During the induction phase the Military Instructors (staff members of SMD, usually a senior Captain or Major)) also organise the first year students into military platoon structures, each with a platoon commander and platoon sergeant who are responsible for the discipline and regimental issues of their platoons, and the platoon commander reports to the Year Group Representative of the MASC. These platoon leader positions are changed on a regular basis in order to expose as many students as possible to leadership issues.

During the first military term the second-year students embark on a sea survival exercise at the SA Military Academy with limited scuba diving training, and exposure to sea streams and sea rescue exercises. Although the students get divided into syndicates with a syndicate leader, the focus is more on how to survive at sea under extreme conditions than on leadership issues. The Military Instructor does appoint a different syndicate leader for each activity though, to ensure exposure to a leadership position.

The third-year students attend an electronic war simulation exercise at the SA Military Academy with no leadership content.

- **Second Military Term.** The first-year students attend a course where they are exposed to the theory of being an officer in the military. According to Booÿjens (2008), the theory is divided into seven chapters, with one of the chapters

focussing on leadership and the character of leaders. Similar to the SA Army Gymnasium, they make use of a manual called “Profession of Arms in the SANDF” (undated), and typical focus areas are on the definitions of leadership, the elements of leadership (the goal and the human element), the characteristics of a leader (integrity, loyalty, commitment, energy, decisiveness, unselfishness), concepts that a leader must know and understand (leadership, self, human nature, the task, the unit), and the required actions of a leader (provide direction, implement decisions and motivate).

The second-year students depart for the SA Army Combat Training Centre at Lohatla in the Northern Cape Province where they are exposed to various warfare and land adventure exercises. They are taught the theory of conventional warfare including signal orientation, mechanised orientation and infantry orientation. The land adventure part includes nature conservation and practical exercises such as abseiling, navigation during the day and at night (being dropped at an unknown spot by helicopter and finding their own way to base) and land survival skills such as eating grasshoppers and snails and finding water. According to Booÿjens (2008) this second military term for the second-year students is highly leadership development orientated, with the Military Instructors having no direct interaction with the different student groups during exercises, but only with group leaders. The students need to demonstrate individual leadership qualities, such as convincing the group to follow his/her strategy, and keeping them together and focussed on the task under stressful conditions to overcome the physical and psychological challenges of the exercises. After the completion of each exercise, debriefing is offered by the Military Instructors so that students can learn from their mistakes. At the end of the course, students perform a buddy rating on each other, and the results are given to each individual as well as placed on their personal files for future reference by superiors. See Appendix E for an example of a buddy rating.

The third-year students attend a sea adventure exercise at the SANDF's 4 Special Forces Regiment at Langebaan in the West Coast region. The focus is on sea skills such as tying knots, proper ways of jumping into the sea from a boat and kayaking. The exercise is concluded with the students being introduced to foreign weapons. Similar to the second-year group, this exercise is also leadership development orientated (syndicate leaders who must lead, convince and motivate their groups) with the Military Instructors keeping their distance, but debriefing the groups after each exercise. The difference is that no buddy rating is done after the course.

- ***Third Military Term.*** The first- and second-year students embark on a significantly demanding exercise called "Trans Enduro". During this exercise the students depart via military transport to Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape Province, approximately 900 kilometres from the SA Military Academy. Two different groups, one via sea (rubber ducks) and the other via land (cycling) must reach the SA Military Academy within ten days. The leadership development aspect for students is in the practical experience gained by being in a leadership position in a real life situation, as well as in overcoming the physical challenges of the exercise. They have to organize the whole exercise from start to finish, and preparations and training for the event, which takes place at the end of the year, commence at the beginning of the year. An overall commander and second in command are nominated by the group of students and presented to the Military Instructor for approval. No real criteria are used to appoint these students other than that the disciplinary records of the students must be clean. According to Booÿjens (2008), the Military Instructor will also not approve a student who has already sufficiently demonstrated his/her leadership ability over the preceding two years, but would rather guide the students to nominate persons who still need exposure. The overall commander and second in command in turn appoint different commanders for the land, sea, media, logistics and community service teams

on the same basis (clean disciplinary record and a need for exposure in a leadership position). The Military Instructor expects feedback from the students on the progress of planning throughout the year, and before the exercise begins a Special Unit Order with detailed planning and allocation of tasks is drafted by the overall commander and signed by the Commandant of the SA Military Academy (Officer Commanding) to give it legal effect. Throughout the exercise the Military Instructor is in the background, and only becomes involved in the daily debrief by the overall commander after each shift.

The third-year students attend a re-integration programme at the SA Military Academy. The rationale is that the students have been absent from real time operations and activities of the SANDF for three years, and need to be sensitized towards what will be expected of them, and what they should expect when they report at operational units after their graduation. Senior representatives from the Army, Air Force, Navy, Health Service, Joint Operations, Force Preparation and Special Forces are invited to present the programme, and they cover issues such as overall developments on military matters over the past three years (a typical matter will be the current focus on peacekeeping in Africa), strategic direction and current deployments of the SANDF.

In connection with leadership character development SMD also draws up an overall performance report on each student, including a section on leadership, after the first year of study. A shortcoming is that about half of the students have had little or no experience in leadership issues at that time. However, at the end of the third year of study, a further report is drafted and by then all of the students have been exposed to leadership challenges. This report is available for confidential reference throughout the student's military career.

5.3.5.3 The Security Institute for Governance and Leadership in Africa

The Security Institute for Governance and Leadership in Africa (SIGLA) needs to be mentioned; this is due to the connection between the SA Military Academy's Faculty of Military Science and SIGLA. The Institute (SIGLA) which is still in its preliminary phase and not yet operational was developed in agreement between the University of Stellenbosch and the SA Military Academy's Faculty of Military Science. It is envisaged that SIGLA will play an important role in leadership development in Africa by offering post-graduate and equivalent programmes to a coordinated Africa-wide audience by building relationships with other countries on the African continent. Focus areas will be the relationship between good leadership and good governance, and between security and development. Important role players will be the Africa Union, Africa Development Bank and the Southern African Defence and Security Management Network (University of Stellenbosch Campus News, 2009:16). It is foreseen that the Institute will be a virtual organisation which will make use of other institutions' infrastructure, and to date none of the envisaged programme contents are in place. SIGLA will not focus on SANDF specific leadership development and will therefore not address SANDF leadership and character development needs.

In preparation for the next chapter, where a comparative evaluation of the four armed forces' approaches to leadership character development will be made, as well as due to all four forces now being dealt with, the following final section of this chapter will outline the nature of the military operations of the armed forces of Germany, United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa.

5.4 THE NATURE OF MILITARY OPERATIONS OF THE CURRENT DEFENCE FORCES OF GERMANY, THE UNITED KINGDOM, CANADA AND SOUTH AFRICA

A military force can be active outside its country's region of sovereignty without being offensive, for example becoming actively involved in peace-keeping missions can be

military operations abroad which are not offensive. All four of the above-mentioned defence forces are actively involved in peace-keeping missions, but one can distinguish between the forces' willingness, or, on the other hand, reluctance, to get involved in offensive operations.

Both the British and Canadian armed forces have been involved in offensive military operations since 2002. The United States of America's (USA) offensive against Taliban and al-Qaeda elements in Afghanistan is supported with troops from many allies, including the United Kingdom and Canada (United Kingdom, Ministry of Defence, 2007:1; US Embassy, 2008:1). Similarly, the USA led coalition in the offensive against Iraq, which started in March 2003, is made up by *inter alia* Canadian and British soldiers (CNN News, 2003:1; Whitaker & Elliot, 2006:1).

Germany is also involved in military operations in both Afghanistan and Iraq, but the *Bundeswehr's* involvement is characterised by its reluctance to provide combat forces; in other words they are adamant about not being offensive (Noetzel & Schreer, 2008:1). Typical *Bundeswehr* activities are to aid Afghan institutions in establishing the rule of law and human rights, and to supply personnel for medical evacuations and air transport in Iraq (German Government, *Chronology of Bundeswehr Missions*, 2008:1, 4). During the research visit in Germany it was also stated that Germany will only get involved in combat to defend a direct attack on their sovereignty (Wilke:2007). Furthermore, their Constitution or Basic Law (Germany, Basic Law, 2001, article 26) reads as follows:

“Ban on preparations for war of aggression. Acts tending to and undertaken with intent to disturb the peaceful relations between nations, especially to prepare for a war of aggression, shall be unconstitutional. They shall be made a criminal offence”.

Although the *Bundeswehr* is known for its aversion to offensive military operations, increased pressure by the coalition forces in Afghanistan resulted in the German

Army taking command of a North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) strike force on 1 July 2008, and thereby providing a combat force that was actively engaging in a military offensive in the region for the first time since they became involved. It is reported, however, that "...this latest military offensive took place outside German mandated territory and in all probability violated the parameters laid down by the German parliament ..." (Niethammer, 2008:2; Noetzel & Schreer, 2008:1).

Akin to Germany, South Africa's SANDF is not known for getting involved in offensive military operations. An example is the argument made for South African military intervention in Zimbabwe to help solve their post-election crisis when Mugabe refused to give up or share the power of governing, and Mbeki's (President of South Africa and Commander in Chief of the SANDF up to September 2008) policy of no intervention, or quiet diplomacy (Caromba, 2008:1). Further confirmation of the SANDF's non-offensive nature is found in Chapter 1 of the Defence Review (1998) which delineates the orientation and posture of the SANDF to be principally defensive, and the force design of the SANDF repudiates the procurement and utilization of manifestly offensive armaments and systems.

The closest that the SANDF came to a military offensive, was the 1998 military invasion of Lesotho by Southern African Development Community (SADC) forces, led by the SANDF. The purpose was to restore law and order after violence erupted (threat of a *coup d'état*) following their elections. The end result was that the threat of military rule in Lesotho was warded off and order restored (Caromba, 2008:1).

In conclusion it is submitted that armed forces that are not inclined to be offensive, are more inclined to be devoted to a humane leadership philosophy than armed forces that are inclined to be offensive.

5.5 SUMMARY

South Africa offers sufficient statutory and value-related principles to build on for sound theoretical subordinate policies and the practical application of leadership character development in the SANDF. However, there seems to be a void between the higher order statutory foundations such as the Constitution and the White Paper on Defence on the one hand, and the SANDF policies on the other; no political guidance such as ministerial regulations which directly address leadership development was found.

Transformational leadership is internationally accepted as a credible model to apply in leadership development programmes, and the SA Army's Full Range Leadership Development Programme promotes the principles of transformational leadership whilst recognising the presence of transactional leadership. The LCAMPS manual is used to keep soldiers continuously in touch with the DOD's philosophy on leadership, command and management, and both the Full Range Leadership Development Programme and the LCAMPS manual are intended for all levels of the DOD.

The institute where leadership development of candidate officers of the SA Army takes place is the SA Army Gymnasium, while the Military Academy continues this initial leadership development for all the SANDF Services. An evaluation of how successful these institutions are in comparison with the DOD's philosophy and SANDF policy will form part of the next chapter.

In connection with the nature of military operations, South Africa and Germany stand out as having an aversion to offensive military operations, while the United Kingdom and Canada seem more inclined to partake in offensive military operations.

The next chapter will explore the differences and similarities between the South African scenario and the international arena, as well as how compatible these

scenarios are with the theoretical contemplations on leadership character development.

CHAPTER 6

SITUATIONS RELEVANT TO MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT: AN EVALUATION OF THE DEFENCE FORCES OF GERMANY, UNITED KINGDOM, CANADA AND SOUTH AFRICA

“A good example is the best sermon.”

Thomas Fuller

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to determine which elements in the approach of each of the armed forces of Germany, United Kingdom and Canada are suitable for an alternative model for leadership character development in the SANDF. In order to achieve this purpose, an evaluation of the respective countries' circumstances relevant to leadership development will be carried out. Comparisons between the general theory on leadership development and the practices of the relevant countries' armed forces will also be undertaken.

To gather the information in Chapters 4 & 5 on the different countries approaches to leadership character development, the same request was initially put forward to each. Each Country was supplied with the focus of the research and requested to supply information. It was indicated that the research focus was on leadership character development, and that information on the following would be appreciated:

- The countries' approaches to military leadership character development – what their views are on the importance thereof and how they undertake the actual development thereof.

- Current programmes to develop leadership character – detail about the content of programmes, and, if available, methods to test the effectiveness of programmes.
- National legislation which is prescriptive with regards to military leadership character development and military doctrine and documents that address the topic.
- The importance of leadership character in the selection of officer recruits in the military forces – whether it is a determining factor in accepting or declining a candidate.

Germany and the United Kingdom used this information to prepare briefings for the research visits, and Canada supplied information, based on the same research request put to Germany and the United Kingdom, via airmail. The South African research was based on a similar approach (personal interviews and briefings at the SA Military Academy and information supplied by the SA Army Gymnasium). The differences and similarities in the emphasis on various leadership character development aspects are thus portrayed in the information supplied by the countries, and further evaluation criteria are found in the theory of Chapters 2 and 3.

The following factors will serve as topics to compare Germany, the United Kingdom and South Africa's approaches to leadership character development of their respective defence forces. These countries are primary sources of information for the research. As Canada is a secondary source with less accessible information, not all the factors will include references to Canada:

- Academic theories on leadership and character development.

- The development of the defence forces to determine how the current defence forces of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa came into being.
- The nature of military operations of the current defence forces – whether they are offensive or not.
- Statutory foundations of military leadership character development, including political direction and determining whether the different countries' leadership character development models are normative, prescriptive or descriptive.
- Selection of officers.
- Leadership character development in practice – comparing what the different Countries put forward as the essence of their military leadership character development models.

6.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACADEMIC THEORIES AND PRACTICE IN MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

This section's endeavour is to determine whether there is a relationship between, or deviation from, academic theories on the topic on the one hand and the different countries' approaches in the practice of leadership character development on the other.

6.2.1 Classical Theories

Even the classical theories which date back between 2000 and 500 years find some application in today's practices in leadership character development. The prime virtues or attributes of a leader as identified by Plato and Sun Tzu include courage

and temperament, which coincide with all four of the relevant forces' desired leadership character traits.

Machiavelli (Stoner & Freeman, 1989:52) stated in the early 1500s that "an organization is more stable if members have the right to express their differences and solve their conflicts within it". This is reminiscent of the principles of the *Bundeswehr's Innere Führung* (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993) (Chapter 4) which *inter alia* promotes the active participation of subordinates in all matters that concern them; a concept which military forces generally are not comfortable with. Even in the event of a public debate on matters concerning the armed forces, security and defence policy, soldiers are mandated to actively participate and express their views. Soldiers are also encouraged to participate in political, cultural, religious and social life, and superiors are supposed to initiate opportunities for this.

Some application of Sun Tzu's theory (Grint, 1997:ix, 21, 22) (Chapter 2) of more than 2000 years ago is found in the SANDF of today. As will be further explained in Section 6.4, the SANDF is not inclined to get involved in offensive military operations, and Sun Tzu wrote that the real art does not lie in the act of war itself, but in the avoidance of war. A non-aggressive military force is more likely to accept a humane type of leadership philosophy than an aggressive force (more is explained in Chapter 7).

6.2.2 Contemporary Theories

By implication all four armed forces reject the absolute application of the trait and behavioural approaches, but all four forces accept certain elements of each approach. The mere fact that each armed force has an officer selection process which tests for certain desired characteristics implies that they believe that certain innate qualities (trait approach) (Steers, Porter & Bigley, 1996:167; Stoner & Freeman, 1989:461; Yukl, 1981:67 and Shriberg *et al*, 2002:170) (Chapter 2) are already present in candidates before they undergo any military training or

development. Unlike the initial trait approach view that “leaders are born, not made”, all four forces engage in undertakings to further develop the leadership character of candidates. The development aspect of the behavioural approach – the belief that leadership behaviour can be developed – (Du Brin, 1995:79-95; Yukl, 1981:105-119; Stoner & Freeman, 1989:466-467; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:171) (Chapter 2) finds relevance in the four forces’ active participation in developing the leadership side of candidates.

Further, it is accepted today that no single approach to leadership development can in its entirety be applied in all situations, in other words the contribution of the contingency approach (Van Dyk & Van Niekerk, 2004:326; Stoner & Freeman, 1989:467; Du Brin, 1995:114) (Chapter 2) – that the situations leaders find themselves in is an important determinant of which type of leader and which type of leadership style will be appropriate – is recognised by all four armed forces. For instance, leaders of the *Bundeswehr* and SANDF must be flexible and adaptable in order to accommodate the challenges of an integrated force, and the British and South African Armies simulate different challenging situations which must be overcome in different ways by candidates during their officer training exercises. The achievement of Institution-Leadership Effectiveness put forward by the Canadian Forces (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations*, 2005:33) (Chapter 4) also assumes flexible institutions with flexible leaders who can adapt to different circumstances.

The theories on the transactional as well as transformational approaches (Bass, 1998:6; McCauley *et al*, 1998:407; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:208 and Kouzes & Posner, 2003:153) finds relevance in the SANDF Model with its Full Range Leadership Development Programme (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000; BFRL Manual, undated) (Chapter 5). The SA Army’s Full Range Leadership Model includes both the transactional and transformational approaches as it recognises that all leaders display all of the leadership behaviours to some degree, but the more effective

leaders will engage in more of the transformational behaviours than the transactional ones.

6.2.3 The Building Blocks of a Leader

The typical character traits of leaders are given in Chapter 3 (Downes, 1991:128; Shriberg *et al*, 2002:136; Kouzes & Posner, 2003:25; Du Brin, 1995:29). It is clear that all four armed forces acknowledge the importance of leadership character traits, and they express the following as desired character traits:

- **Germany** – honesty, loyalty, courage, initiative (Wilke, 2007) (Chapter 4).
- **United Kingdom** – courage, willpower, integrity, commitment, self-sacrifice, mutual trust (Mileham, 2001:145) (Chapter 4).
- **Canada** – duty, loyalty, integrity, courage (Canada. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Leading People, Summaries*, 2007:7) (Chapter 4).
- **South Africa** – courage, judgement, willpower, flexibility, knowledge, integrity (SA Army LCAMPS Manual, 2000:2-1-3) (Chapter 5).

Although the four countries' armed forces differ on some character traits they are looking for in the makeup of their military leaders, they are analogous in other desired character traits; for example all four armed forces rate courage as a desired trait, and the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa all include integrity. It is also certain that the above are not exhaustive lists of desired military leadership character traits, and that other doctrines and documents of the relevant countries not researched will include more – the common denominator is that leadership character traits are important.

It is submitted in Chapter 3 that the innate qualities of people do play a role in whether they will be successful leaders or not, but also that these already present leadership character traits can be nurtured and further developed (Krass, 1998:4; McCauley *et al*, 1998:5; Terry, 1993:253; Kouzes & Posner, 2003:387; Hunter, 2004:42). The way in which they are developed is in the form of courses and seminars, which are applied by all four armed forces, but more important for the learning part of leadership character development is experience. Candidates will learn from those things that happen to them as well as what they observe from examples set by established leaders, or senior officers in senior positions.

The *Bundeswehr's Innere Führung* is a model which encompasses both the seminar/course type education on leadership character development, as well as the experience side. The *Zentrum Innere Führung* is the institution presenting courses and seminars, but the concept of *Innere Führung* expects senior officers to set examples to juniors, and offers the juniors the opportunity to develop their leadership character through everyday life experience.

The Canadian Forces' model leans more towards the seminar/course side, while the British and South African armies focus on courses with practical exercises included. These practical exercises find application in Erasmus & Van Rensburg's (2001:273-281) research on the development of leadership character in young military leaders. The research showed that exposing candidate officers to challenging and daunting practical situations (adventurous exercises such as first time horse riding, and physically and mentally difficult exercises such as offered at RMAS and SA Army Gymnasium) which must be overcome by the candidates within themselves, contributes to the development of their leadership character. The majority of candidates on whom the research was done were of the opinion that they will be able to draw on the experience gained at the time of the exercise and show the necessary character to overcome intimidating challenges in the future.

Leadership character development is not a natural science, and it is difficult to measure whether any developmental activity actually develops the leadership character of candidates. For example, the research could not determine whether *Innere Führung* actually makes candidates more decisive or more considerate, or whether training at RMAS and the SA Army Gymnasium make candidates more courageous with more integrity and better judgement. All four forces were asked whether any system is in place to actually determine whether the specific activity or approach actually develops the leadership character of candidates, and none of the responses were affirmative.

This is perhaps a shortcoming in the approach of all four armed forces, namely that all of them engage in leadership character development activities purely in the belief that such activities have positive consequences. The closest research found which armed forces actually tested whether their development efforts were successful was Erasmus' (Erasmus & Van Rensburg, 2001:280) research at the SA Military Academy in the early 2000s. Although he found that adventurous training exercises contribute positively towards the development of leadership character, his research was never incorporated in the SA Military Academy's (nor the SANDF's) leadership development programme.

It is mentioned above that the experience aspect of developing leadership character includes what candidates observe from superiors. This highlights a challenging situation in South Africa, which includes the already-mentioned importance of political involvement or guidance. The examples set by senior leaders in the DOD are without doubt observed by candidate and junior officers. The following are extracts from news articles reported during the past three years, which cannot be seen as conducive to the leadership character development of juniors. They include an example set by Members of Parliament, the highest legislative authority in South Africa. Political office bearers have as big an influence on candidate and junior officers' leadership character as the examples set by senior officers, due to the SANDF being the institution defending the existence of the country and what it stands

for. The Institution (SANDF) defends the political milieu created by political office bearers, and it stands to reason that candidate and junior officers will be influenced by the conduct of those they serve:

“Army fraudsters get promoted: Two senior army officers who were implicated in exam fraud leading to one of the men being found guilty of fraud, will now be promoted to general” (Gibson, 2008:1).

“Shame of first woman admiral: South Africa’s first woman admiral, ...has been found guilty on charges of fraud and assault ...” (Peters & Barnes, 2008:1).

“Sex scandal rocks army academy: ...a charge of scandalous conduct had been brought against a senior officer at the academy” (Gibson, 2007:1).

“Travelgate: 14 plead guilty: Fourteen current and former African National Congress (ANC) MPs (Members of Parliament) were convicted and fined on Monday after pleading guilty to theft and fraud charges ...” (MacLennan, 2006:1)

In concordance with the above-mentioned view and examples, Schwella (2009:1-5) mentions the phenomenon of toxic leaders. Toxic leaders are bad examples of leadership, mainly the result of having too much uncontrolled power vested in them. He adds that South Africa has examples of good leaders in the recent past, who are associated with effectiveness and ethical behaviour, such as Mr Nelson Mandela, Mr F.W. de Klerk and Emeritus-Archbishop Desmond Tutu. Although he does not mention South African examples of toxic or bad leaders (associated with ineffectiveness and unethical behaviour), he does mention that certain political leaders of the recent past, as well as aspirant leaders of the near future, such as Mr Thabo Mbeki, Mr Julius Malema, Mr Carl Niehaus and Dr Manto Tshabalala-

Msimang, are constantly debated in the news; unfortunately not for their ethical behaviour or effectiveness.

Emotional intelligence is today recognized as an important ingredient in the make-up of a leader (Goleman, 2005:97). As described in Chapter 3, Germany's *Innere Führung* compares remarkably well with the theory on emotional intelligence. Fundamental elements of emotional intelligence are self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy and social skill. *Innere Führung* embraces these elements clearly, and the following reiterates its correspondence with the theory. (a) Self-awareness is described by Goleman (2005:97) as leaders' ability to realise how to assess themselves realistically in terms of their strengths as well as weaknesses. The Germans' Joint Service Regulation (JSR no ZDV 10/1, 1993:16) stipulates that a superior will not bring shame upon him/herself when asking soldiers for advice or admitting to making an error. Knowledge of one's own shortcomings is believed to make it easier to deal with the strengths and weaknesses of others. Superiors are therefore instructed to critically look at their own performance, and to bear in mind that the military and civilian environment continuously scrutinise their behaviour. (b) Self-regulation, which equates to emotional stability, stresses the importance of a superior's calm approach to solving problems. According to the German model (Germany, JSR no ZDV10/1, 1993) it is the superior's calm reaction to initial errors which ensures that his soldiers gain in confidence, master difficulties better and feel able to assume greater responsibility. (c) Empathy is about the ability to make intelligent decisions while thoughtfully considering subordinates' feelings. German superiors are compelled to explain the context of orders, and to avoid hurting others by harshness or coldness. (d) Social skill concerns the leader's ability to manage relationships. *Innere Führung* amply reveals the importance of cohesion in the *Bundeswehr*. Trust must be earned and cultivated, and respect for the dignity and freedom of others, as well as tolerance and consideration for others have great substance.

The current lack of an official SANDF leadership philosophy to serve as an agent in creating a military environment wherein the elements of emotional intelligence can flourish, is addressed in Chapter 7.

6.3 THE COMING INTO BEING OF THE CURRENT DEFENCE FORCES OF CANADA, GERMANY, THE UNITED KINGDOM AND SOUTH AFRICA

The coming into being of the relevant countries' defence forces is a valid factor in analyzing information to propose an alternative model for leadership character development in South Africa, as a military force's background will influence its value system and mission, and the character of its leaders should be compatible with this. Although it does not directly influence leadership character, it determines the milieu in which a leadership development model must function.

The justification for existence of the current defence forces of Canada and the United Kingdom differs from Germany and South Africa in the sense that the latter two developed out of a major, and fairly recent, political change.

The *Bundeswehr* of Germany initially developed after the fall of the Nazi regime and the subsequent democratization of West Germany. The next major political event was the so called "fall of the Berlin Wall" which resulted in the unification of Germany on 3 October 1990. The *Bundeswehr* today is the product of a dominant democratic political system blended with a communist system – West Germany integrated the communist East German NPA into the *Bundeswehr* after the unification. The integrated NPA force with its communist background had to adapt to the democratic principles of the *Bundeswehr*, and *Inner Führung* played a major role in facilitating this process (Wilke, 2007; McGregor, 2006:7).

Similar to the German experience, South Africa's SANDF is also a product of major political change. After the political defeat of the non-democratic National Party by the democratically aligned ANC in 1994, the forces of the SADF, MK, APLA, the KwaZulu

Self Protection Forces, and the armies of the TBVC countries were integrated to form the new South African National Defence Force. The difference is that the *Bundeswehr* comprises only two integrated forces, whereas the SANDF is made up of eight different forces. The SANDF thus faces a far greater challenge to accommodate more than a few different races, cultures and socio-economic backgrounds. The SANDF also lacks a bonding agent such as *Innere Führung* to smooth out the obstacles inherent to an integrated institution, and to promote a military culture where soldiers assent to the same values and principles.

According to the Canadian Forces' official internet website (www.forces.gc.ca, 2008) their armed forces developed over 400 years, starting in the early 1600s. The initial use of the force was to defend Québec City, and the character of the force was influenced over time by typical colonisation; first by the French and later by the English. Both the Canadian Forces and the SANDF were initially influenced by colonisation of other countries, such as the French in Canada and the Dutch in South Africa, but a similarity is that both have an English influence due to colonisation, whereas Germany does not share this influence.

Although the British military forces historically developed from the separate forces of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, the modern united force experienced no real challenges in terms of the different cultures' value systems and beliefs. Mileham (2001:iii) (Chapter 4) states that "the British Army is a very mature organization, which suffered no discontinuity since becoming all professional in 1960. Much of the concept, character, practice and quality of British Army Officership has been assumed, and not studied as deeply and comprehensively as in other countries."

Table 6.1 summarizes the factors influencing the development of the modern defence forces of Germany, United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa.

Table 6.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODERN DEFENCE FORCES OF GERMANY, THE UNITED KINGDOM, CANADA AND SOUTH AFRICA

Serial No	Country	Factors Influencing the Development of the Force
1	Germany (<i>Bundeswehr</i>)	Fall of Nazi regime after WW II and democratization of West Germany. Fall of the Berlin Wall/Unification of Germany in 1990 and integration of the National People's Army into the existing <i>Bundeswehr</i>
2	United Kingdom (British Army)	Mature organisation – suffered no discontinuity for years
3	Canada (Canadian Forces)	Mature organisation. Influenced by French and English colonisation
4	South Africa (SANDF)	Democratization of South Africa and integration of 8 forces into the new SANDF in 1994. Influenced by English colonisation

To conclude; with regards to the military milieus within which the relevant armed forces function today, South Africa can relate more to Germany than to Canada or the United Kingdom. Both armed forces' (South Africa and Germany) predecessors alienated themselves from society, and both forces went through an integration phase where previous military enemies were joined together and are now serving their respective democratic governments.

6.4 THE NATURE OF MILITARY OPERATIONS OF THE CURRENT DEFENCE FORCES

The nature of a country's military force's operations (which, in a democracy, have to be authorised by its government) can be an indication of which type of leadership character development model will be compatible with that specific force.

It was determined in Chapter 5 that the relatively young democracies of Germany and South Africa are reluctant to get involved in offensive military operations. On the other hand the long-established democracies of the United Kingdom and Canada are

less hesitant to partake in offensive military operations (CNN News, 2003:1; Whitaker & Elliot, 2006:1; Noetzel & Schreer, 2008:1).

A deduction is that military forces of countries who underwent drastic and comparatively recent political change after a period of violence towards citizens of the same countries, where such violence can be ascribed to the governments of the time, will be less inclined to offensive or aggressive military operations. It was explained in Chapters 4 and 5 that the establishment of the German *Bundeswehr* followed the atrocities of the Nazi regime, and the SANDF's establishment followed the Apartheid regime. The remembrance of the atrocities of military aggression is still fresh in the memories of these communities, and a developer of an alternative model for military leadership character development for the SANDF should take cognisance of the possible aversion to a model based on an aggressive military example.

It is also found that the military forces not inclined to be offensive are more devoted to a humane leadership philosophy (*Innere Führung* and *Ubuntu* [a person can only exist with dignity through other persons] are both examples of humane leadership philosophies – more about *Ubuntu* will be explained in Chapter 7).

The nature of the four different forces' military operations is summarized in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2. THE NATURE OF MILITARY OPERATIONS OF THE CURRENT DEFENCE FORCES

Serial No	Country	Involvement in Offensive Military Operations
1	Germany (<i>Bundeswehr</i>)	Disinclined to partake in offensive military operations
2	United Kingdom (British Army)	Inclined to partake in offensive military operations
3	Canada (Canadian Forces)	Inclined to partake in offensive military operations
4	South Africa (SANDF)	Disinclined to partake in offensive military operations

6.5 STATUTORY FOUNDATIONS FOR AND POLITICAL COMMITMENT IN MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN GERMANY, UNITED KINGDOM, CANADA AND SOUTH AFRICA

The British Army did not formulate its leadership character development Model on written, **prescriptive legislation**, but rather relies on its organisational maturity, which offers a mechanism of doing things or conducting their business in a traditional manner that over decades satisfied their expectations (Mileham's, 2001:iii; Bennet, 2007) (Chapter 4).

The *Bundeswehr*, on the contrary, established its Model extensively on Germany's Basic Law (Constitution), which is also the foundation for subordinate legislation in its armed forces. The principles of their method (*Innere Führung*) to develop military leaders with the appropriate leadership character is sanctioned by a Ministerial Regulation, JSR no ZDV 10/1 of 16 February 1993. It is thus part of German legislation.

This Regulation compels members of the *Bundeswehr* to receive instructions on and to abide by the principles of *Innere Führung*. The Regulation is not merely a broad mandate to embark on leadership character development, but explains the objectives and principles in detail. Consequently, no soldier or leader can be ignorant of what the Country expects from him/her, and the process is driven by political office bearers as the overseers; politicians (and by implication the citizens) are thus actively involved in the leadership character development of German military leaders. Effectively, German soldiers will break the law if they do not abide by the principles of *Innere Führung*, and this state of affairs was reached by political commitment being evident in the total concept and application of *Innere Führung*.

The legislative foundation for the Canadian Forces (secondary source of information) was not researched, but the Canadian Forces Professional Development Framework (Walker, 2006:1 – 56) (Chapter 4) to enhance leadership effectiveness in the

Canadian Forces was developed under the auspices of Canada's Minister of National Defence. The inference is thus that some political interest in military leadership development is current in Canada.

South Africa's Constitution, White Paper on Defence and Defence Act offer a number of values and parameters for the development of a policy on leadership, but all in a broad, value-laden mode. Examples are Chapter 2 of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) which lists fundamental and basic human rights and Chapter 10 on public administration where it is stated that democratic values and principles will govern South Africa's public administration, and that a high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained. The White Paper on National Defence for the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Chapter 3, section 30.8) expresses the wish for "...a South African military ethic based on international standards of officership, loyalty and pride in the organisation". The nearest reference to leadership development in the Defence Act 2002 (No 42 of 2002) is found in Chapter 10 Section 63(3) which stipulates that the "Minister of Defence must ensure that the training of members and employees of the Department promotes the objectives of, and is in accordance with, the Constitution and the law, including customary international law and international agreements binding on the Republic". In contrast to the German state of affairs, the South African Minister of Defence did not promulgate any subordinate legislation to address military leadership development.

South Africa thus lacks specific political instructions with detail that expressly addresses the conduct and character of its soldiers and military leaders. No ministerial regulation on the matter is available, and soldiers are left to themselves to interpret higher legislation such as the Constitution and the Defence Act when developing a policy on leadership character development. This could be a reason why the DOD's policy on leadership development still does not have official status, and is merely a proposition (DOD LCAMPS, undated) (Chapter 5). The SANDF's policy or philosophy on leadership development is not inconsistent with the Constitution and other legislation, but direct political guidance is lacking; there is a

gap between parliamentary legislation and SANDF policy. This can create the impression on the one hand that leadership character development of military leaders is not important for the people of South Africa, and on the other hand lead to policies which are inconsistent with the wishes of the people.

Lack of **political commitment or guidance** for the SANDF (this statement is only with regards to leadership development) can also make it difficult to secure funds. Leadership development is not a visible or tangible SANDF concern, such as are peace-keeping missions in other countries – peace keeping being one of the SANDF's highest priorities. In his Defence Budget Vote Address in May 2008, the Minister of Defence argued for a review of the distinction between the SANDF's primary and secondary functions, with peace keeping traditionally being a secondary function, and the primary function being the defence of South Africa against external military aggression (this also confirms the SANDF's non-aggressive and non-offensive nature). As the Minister put it "...peace missions ... is the highest level of peacetime commitment in the history of the SANDF ..." (Lekota, 2008:4).

One could argue that a period of peacetime with no existing threat of external military aggression is the ideal time to address an intangible but important issue such as leadership development and by implication leadership character development. No reference to such a topic is in the Budget Vote Address, which is indicative of the relative unimportance of the issue on a political level, and hence the lack of funding for it.

Categorizing the different countries' models into **normative, prescriptive or descriptive on a political level**, one can argue that the German model is normative in the sense that their military leadership character development model is based on their Basic Law which sets the norms on what outlook and attitude and value system a development policy in their military ought to pursue. Then again, it is prescriptive regarding values, principles and objectives which can directly be associated with leadership character development; their Ministerial Regulation prescribes how their

military leaders and soldiers should reason on concepts, and how seniors should set examples for juniors and what type of conduct is considered to be appropriate.

South Africa is not prescriptive at all on a political level regarding leadership character development. It follows the normative route though, by its model being based on the norms and values contained in the Constitution (1996), White Paper on Defence (1996), the South African Defence Review (1998) and the Defence Act (2002), such as the protection and furtherance of human rights and the principles of good governance and courtesy and respect for civilians, and parameters on who is responsible for training in the SANDF, but leadership development in the military is not prescribed on a political level. The SANDF's and specifically the SA Army's leadership development model is based on departmental philosophy; a proposed philosophy which is as yet not formalized as official policy in the SANDF (South Africa, DOD, Proposed Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, undated).

The United Kingdom model on the other hand is descriptive of what the British Army is doing. Their Army describes what they have ascertained over decades to be important for leadership character development, and designed their model around that.

An inference is that the countries that underwent drastic and comparatively recent political change are inclined to rely on prescriptive and or normative models for their military forces, whereas a politically more mature society such as the United Kingdom is content with a descriptive model. Further, the impression is that a country such as South Africa, a relatively new democracy with its internal challenges of multiculturalism, can do well to adopt the element of political commitment and direction of the German Model; legislative prescriptions that lay down the expected frame of mind of military leaders, and what the community expects character wise from its military leaders. In other words something more specific than a broad declaration of values.

This viewpoint on political commitment and guidance is not arguing to dilute the concept of *Trias Politica* (the democratic principle of the separation of powers between the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government). It is accepted in modern democracies that an absolute separation of powers between the three branches of government is impractical and that a measure of interdependence between them is inevitable (Burns & Beukes, 2006:29). Political direction for the institution (SANDF) dedicated to protect the livelihood of citizens and the values of South Africa's Constitution is appropriate and does not violate the doctrine of separation of powers.

Table 6.3 indicates the level of political involvement in a specific country's military leadership development model, and whether the model is normative, prescriptive or descriptive in nature.

Table 6.3 STATUTORY FOUNDATIONS FOR MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN GERMANY, UNITED KINGDOM AND SOUTH AFRICA

Serial No	Country	Prescriptive Legislation	Normative, Prescriptive or Descriptive
1	Germany (<i>Bundeswehr</i>)	Based on Basic Law and directed by Ministerial Regulation	Politically normative – Basic Law provides norms and values. Politically prescriptive – Ministerial Regulation directs principles and objectives on institutional level in <i>Bundeswehr</i>
2	United Kingdom (British Army)	No legislative direction	None on a political level. Institutionally descriptive – British Army describes its undertaking
3	Canada (Canadian Forces)	Not researched	Not researched
4	South Africa (SANDF)	Based on Constitution and Parliamentary Legislation. Not directed by subordinate legislation	Politically normative – Constitution provides norms and values. Institutionally normative – DOD proposes a philosophy

6.6 THE SELECTION OF OFFICERS

Proper selection of officers is inseparable from the total process of developing leadership character in young military leaders. The conclusion was made in Chapter 3 that a combination of the nature (innate leadership character traits) and nurture (development of leadership character) approaches is the one to accept (Shriberg *et al*, 2002:19; Hunter, 2004:42). The significance of a proper selection process is set in the reality that before one can embark on developing leadership character, one must first determine whether the minimum level of leadership character traits to build on are present in a candidate's make-up. One cannot create desired leadership character traits out of nothing, but one can develop and improve on what is already present. The selection process is then also a mechanism to determine which candidates do not possess the minimum level of desired leadership character abilities, and either dispose of or redirect such candidates to positions where leadership character is not a prerequisite. The selection process can thus be seen as the starting point for militaries as far as leadership character and its development are concerned.

The frontrunner in the officer selection aspect of leadership character is the United Kingdom. Their selection process stands out compared to Germany, Canada and South Africa. Out of the four countries, the British Army is the only force to have a full-scale, permanent military unit whose line function is to select candidates for officer training. This enables the British Army to conduct seven-day cycles of selection boards throughout each year, and the staff members involved in the selection process are entirely focussed on only that (Norman, 2007) (Chapter 4).

Dissimilar to the British example, the other countries' militaries have mobile selection boards comprising representatives of various services and divisions, who may or may not be the same members each time the selection boards convene (Birke, 2000:15-1, 2; Canada, Department of National Defence, 2000:30-1; Peddle, 2008) (Chapters 4 &

5). Members of these countries' selection boards are not professional/permanent board members, but officers with other line functions who must detach from their normal occupations to operate the process. Their focus can thus not be as intense as the British example.

Another distinguishing aspect of the British Army's process is that civilians who apply for officer training may remain civilians for up to five years before joining the military (Norman, 2007). In the other countries a candidate must either join the force before applying for officer training, or join straight after being accepted. This bestows a measure of calmness on the British Model, unlike a system where the selection process must be rushed in order to select the right number of candidates to fill vacancies. It is stated in Chapter 4 that the *Bundeswehr* is at times compelled to accept candidates with the lowest acceptable level of aptitude, and that this still may not satisfy the demand (Birke, 2000:15-2). This aspect of the British system also allows candidates ample time to make sure that they want to commit to a career as a military officer, an aspect that will ensure more dedication by candidates during training.

With regards to the South African scenario, it can be argued that it is not enough to almost completely rely on psychological tests rounded off by a ten-minute interview to decide if a person is suitable to become an officer in the SANDF (Peddle, 2008) (Chapter 5). If a developed country such the United Kingdom, whose Army has the privilege of selecting officer candidates from a pool of which the vast majority are university graduates still considers it apt to have a six-day officer selection process, then the SANDF's selection process compares poorly. Further, the OSB in the SANDF does not have fixed criteria on which they evaluate candidates (consensus is reached by the members of the OSB before each selection process on what questions will be put to candidates during the ten-minute interview), and the interview is more an undertaking to confirm the results of psychological tests than a selection tool in itself. The members of the OSB are not appointed for a term, in other words they have other postings, and are only temporarily detached to form the Board. They

can thus not be expected to be totally dedicated to the selection process. Although the Canadian Forces do not have a permanent unit for officer selection, such as the British Army, it is mentioned in Chapter 4 that their Career Counsellors involved in officer selection will serve for three to five years at the various Recruiting Centres before returning to their operational postings; therefore they are also more focussed on officer selection than members of the SANDF OSB.

There is a similarity in all four defence forces' officer selection processes in the sense that all make use of testing devices such as psychological tests, aptitude tests, fitness tests and interviews, but it is the British Army's model of institutionalising the Selection Board and the intense attention over a relatively long period to relatively few candidates by relatively senior and professional personnel which make it stand out from the rest.

6.7 MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN PRACTICE

This section evaluates what the four countries consider to be the essence of their respective force's approach to leadership character development. The research relied on the relevant country's defence force to indicate what it does in practice to develop leadership character. The undertakings or approaches presented by the countries' armed forces are not all inclusive of what the respective forces undertake with regards to leadership character development, but are indicative of how important the specific country rates its specific undertakings. To further clarify; all the forces have an officer selection process, theory, doctrines and institutions such as RMAS and SA Army Gymnasium where candidate officers are trained, but each country chose to present only one or two undertakings as answer to the research question of how they develop their future officers' leadership character. Officer selection is already explained in the previous section, but the only force for example that included their officer selection process as a vital part of their leadership development model was the British Army (the other part of the British model being the officer training course offered at RMAS).

In comparing the different forces of Germany, United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa, a conclusion is that Germany's *Bundeswehr* focuses on its **leadership philosophy**, *Innere Führung*, to infiltrate the lives and outlook of all their military personnel, including the officer cadets and young officers (Bach, 2007; Wilke, 2007; JSR no ZDV 10/1, 1993) (Chapter 4). The United Kingdom's British Army emphasizes its **superior selection** process and **officer training** at RMA (Allender, 2007; Norman, 2007; De La Hey, 2007, Hughes, 2007) (Chapter 4) whereas Canada's Canadian Forces assigns significant importance to its **leadership institution**, research on leadership issues and the interrelation between successful leaders and successful institutions (Walker, 2006:1-56). South Africa's SANDF developed a (proposed) leadership development philosophy (DOD LCAMPS, undated) which serves as the basis for doctrines and manuals used in the SA Army. A leadership development programme (Full Range Leadership Development Programme) was also developed to address leadership development on all levels in the Army, and at any time in a soldier's career (not necessarily during initial officer training) (BFRL Manual, undated) (Chapter 5). The SA Army Gymnasium's leadership character development activities are also based on the above-mentioned Proposed Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture (Janse van Rensburg, 2008). The SA Military Academy's leadership character development activities concentrate on practical exercises and structures where the students rotate in leadership positions to plan and execute the exercises (Booÿjens, 2008) (Chapter 5). Each country's armed force thus offers a different focus area and best practice for developing military leadership.

6.7.1 The South African National Defence Force in Comparison with the *Bundeswehr*

In comparing the SANDF with the *Bundeswehr*, the SANDF lacks an equivalent of *Innere Führung*. The closest thing to it is the DOD's Proposed Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, but unlike

Innere Führung, which starts at ministerial level and directs all conduct and outlook and influences the leadership character of soldiers throughout the *Bundeswehr*, the DOD's philosophy transpires at institutional level, and it does not order or direct the SANDF. The military leadership institution which drives *Innere Führung* in the *Bundeswehr* is the *Zentrum Innere Führung* (Bach, 2007; Wilke, 2007; Gerhard, 2007; JSR no ZDV 10/1, 1993); the SANDF does not possess an equivalent institution.

6.7.2 The South African National Defence Force in Comparison with the British Army

The SANDF in comparison to the British Army, apart from falling short with regards to the selection process, also falls short in terms of the officer training at the respective training institutions. Firstly, the United Kingdom's RMAS has an advantage in that it works with intellectually more mature officer candidates (more than 80% percent are already graduated before their training commences). In the SANDF the norm is that a selected number of officer candidates follow a degree course at the SA Military Academy only after completion of their officer training. Secondly, RMAS is confident about the potential leadership character quality of its officer candidates. This is due to the superior selection process at the AOSB; this high level of confidence was not detected in researching the activities of the SA Army Gymnasium (Janse van Rensburg, 2008). Thirdly, the quality of staff members involved in the training of candidates, especially the colour sergeants, was highlighted by RMAS as one of its success factors. The SA Army Gymnasium does not follow the strict selection process of RMAS when appointing training staff, and the quality of staff training is not emphasized as a strongpoint in the South African model. Fourthly, over and above RMAS's intellectually more mature candidates and high quality training staff, its course is presented over forty two weeks spread throughout the whole year, compared to the SA Army Gymnasium whose course is presented over only seventeen weeks. The deduction is that a more rounded and accomplished young officer is delivered by RMAS than by the SA Army Gymnasium.

There are similarities between the United Kingdom and South African models, such as that both make use of an officer selection process, both value its training institutions, and the training institutions compare favourably with each other in terms of course content and type of practical exercises, although the British Army uses adventurous training on a significantly greater scale (Cuthbert, 2007:24) (Chapters 4 & 5). Although the SANDF includes adventurous training in its training programmes at the SA Army Gymnasium and the SA Military Academy, their small scale implies that it does not realize the full potential of such activities. The SA Army Gymnasium only undertakes one adventurous training exercise during their Officers Formative Course, and it is in the form of an endurance march during which different scenarios are simulated to practically test the students' leadership abilities (the other exercise is in preparation for the actual exercise, and lasts only a couple of hours). The SA Military Academy uses adventurous training exercises more in line with the British Army and Erasmus & Van Rensburg's (2001:273-281) idea, but not close to the required extent. The Trans Enduro exercise (Booÿjens, 2008) (Chapter 5) is up to standard, but it is only one exercise, and only a small number of the total SANDF candidate officers attend the SA Military Academy; the majority are therefore not exposed to the exercise.

The British Army undoubtedly shows its conviction for the value of adventurous training by the sheer scale of its engagement therein. RMAS mounted 64 adventurous training expeditions in 2005, the majority of which were overseas. In 2006 RMAS officer cadets, unaccompanied by RMAS staff or instructors, ventured on 23 expeditions to the United States, Romania, France, Crete, Germany, Chile, Croatia, Spain, Oman, Turkey, Malta and Jordan (Cuthbert, 2007:24) (Chapter 4). A positive consequence of such exercises is the experience gained by participants if they are left to themselves to plan and execute the exercise; admittedly something the SA Military Academy applies in their Trans Enduro exercise.

6.7.3 The South African National Defence Force in Comparison with the Canadian Forces

An evident difference between the Canadian example and South Africa is South Africa's lack of a dedicated SANDF institution on leadership, such as the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute (and Germany's *Zentrum Innere Führung*). According to the International Military Testing Association (2005:4) the mission of the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute (CFLI), as part of the Canadian Defence Academy, emphasises the importance of research, concept development and doctrine with the purpose to generate effective military leaders. Such an institution keeps the military up to date on important developments and trends in military leadership issues, as well as ensures that the knowledge generated by the institution is dispersed and understood throughout the force. Research on leadership issues is done by military academics, and the ensuing military doctrine is based on such academic research. In South Africa, military academics are absent from the process of developing leadership concepts and doctrine (currently this is done by militarists in Staff Officer positions), mainly due to the non-existence of a military leadership institute, and secondly because the academics at the SA Military Academy are simply not included in such processes.

A summary of the focus of leadership character development activities of the different forces is given in Table 6.4

Table 6.4 LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN PRACTICE

Serial No	Country	Leadership Character Development Focus
1	Germany (<i>Bundeswehr</i>)	<i>Innere Führung</i> infiltrates the lives and outlook of officer cadets
2	United Kingdom (British Army)	Superior officer selection and quality officer training
3	Canada (Canadian Forces)	Leadership Institution, leadership research, interrelation between successful leaders and successful institutions
4	South Africa (SANDF)	Proposed leadership philosophy, relatively short officer training

In conclusion to this Chapter, Table 6.5 summarizes the elements of each country's approach to military leadership character development which could find application in a model for South Africa.

Table 6.5 ELEMENTS ACCEPTABLE FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCENARIO

Serial No	Country	Elements acceptable for South Africa
1	Germany (<i>Bundeswehr</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The coming into existence of the <i>Bundeswehr</i>, which is the result of a major political change to a democracy followed by the integration of different armed forces – circumstances which South Africans and the SANDF can relate to. • A bonding agent such as <i>Innere Führung</i> to align the different cultures and backgrounds of Blacks, Coloureds, Indians and Whites in the SANDF into a united outlook on the values and conduct of military leaders, and to offer a life experience during which leadership character is developed. • The high regard given by the <i>Bundeswehr</i> to Germany's Basic Law (equivalent of South Africa's Constitution). • Political guidance and involvement in military leadership development to ensure a nationally accepted outlook on, and adequate funding for, leadership development practices and institutions. • A disinclination to take part in offensive military operations.
2	United Kingdom (British Army)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A comprehensive and meticulous approach to officer selection. • A well-funded officers' training institution, with specially selected staff and a relatively extended officers' training course. • Interventions for leadership character development, such as adventurous training. • Military structures, traditions and regimental systems familiar to the SANDF.
3.	Canada (Canadian Forces)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A military leadership institution capable of doing academic research on the subject and proficient in reporting about up-to-date developments on the subject, and with the ability to develop leadership theory.

6.8 SUMMARY

The evaluation of the armed forces of Germany, United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa in terms of leadership character development is based on information supplied by the respective forces, and which is explained in Chapters 4 and 5. The different forces were subjected to similar research requests, and their responses are viewed as that element or elements which each country's force regards as fundamental to its young military leaders' leadership character development.

Typical of modern militaries, all four forces engage in analogous activities, such as subjecting officer candidates to selection boards before being accepted, offering officer training, formulating training manuals and practices based on academic theories, and the three forces of Germany, United Kingdom and Canada all have military leadership institutions – the United Kingdom's military leadership institution is the Defence Leadership Centre (DLC), established in 2002 as part of their Defence Academy with the aim of helping to develop leadership skills throughout their armed forces (United Kingdom DLC, 2004).

Nevertheless, there are distinct elements identified which show differences in the importance given to different developmental activities as well as differences in approaches to the concept of leadership character development. The elements used to distinguish the four forces were the development of the forces as establishments, the nature of their military operations, statutory foundations for leadership character development, the development of leadership character in practice, as well as the compatibility of the practice with the theory.

In condensed form one may state that the *Bundeswehr* esteems the total concept of *Innere Führung* as its foremost approach to leadership development as a whole and leadership character development in particular, with the British Army attaching importance to the quality of its officer selection and officer training, and the Canadian Forces valuing their theory on the interrelationship between successful institutions

and successful leaders as well as the research capabilities provided by their military leadership institution. South Africa has a proposed (not formalized) philosophy on leadership development, as well as a force-wide leadership development programme aimed at all rank groups, and a relatively short officer training programme.

If one ranks the different countries' total situations in order of elements acceptable for South Africa's military environment, Germany's model seems to have the most appropriate elements, followed by the United Kingdom and then Canada. That is not stating that the elements of the British Army and Canadian Forces models are not important considerations for an alternative leadership character development model for the SANDF, but merely that more elements of the *Bundeswehr* model correspond with the South African situation.

The next chapter explains an alternative model for leadership character development applicable in the SANDF.

CHAPTER 7

THE FIVE POINT STAR MODEL: AN ALTERNATIVE LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

“Leadership is the capacity to translate vision into reality.”

Warren G. Bennis

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter introduces an alternative model for leadership character development in the SANDF. It is an alternative model, as it is accepted that the SANDF has an existing model, but it is proposed that this model can be improved upon. The existing model is the combination of elements and activities explained in Chapter 5.

The proposed model (Figure 7.1 outlines the model; see Figure 7.2 for the full model), the Five Point Star Model for Leadership Character Development in the SANDF (FPS Model) firstly symbolizes excellence; a star usually being associated with a person who stands out from the rest. Secondly, the military should have no reservations in accepting the star symbol, as a star is traditionally part of the official rank insignia of the SANDF. The star is found on the lowest ranking officer's rank insignia (2nd Lieutenant), as well as the highest rank of General. This symbolizes the appropriateness of the model for candidate and junior officers' development, as well as the fact that a senior officer as a leader in the SANDF accepts the responsibility of being a role model for juniors throughout his/her military career.

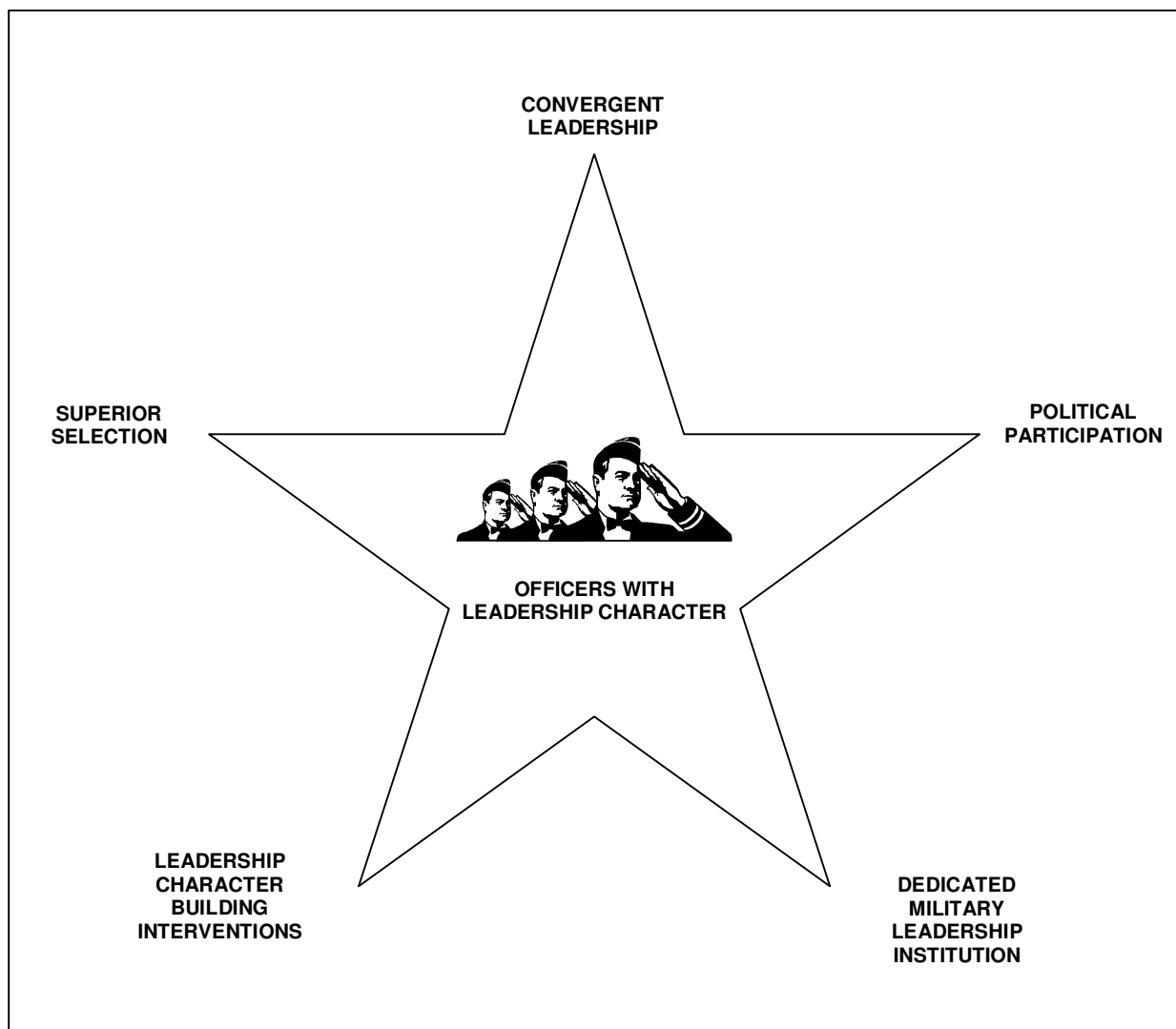
Thirdly, the five points of the star represent the five essential elements of the alternative leadership character development model, namely Convergent Leadership Policy, Political Participation, Superior Selection, Interventions for Leadership Character Development, and a Dedicated Military Leadership Institution. Lastly, the

core of the star represents the ultimate goal; officers with appropriate leadership character.

The elements of the model are interrelated. Cohesiveness, consistent with a convergent leadership policy, will not be achieved without a leadership institution to guide the internalization of the policy within the SANDF. Interventions for leadership character development will only serve the purpose if a superior selection process is in place to identify suitable candidates with the necessary qualities to build on. Leadership character development in the SANDF will only reflect the morals and principles of South African society if there is active involvement on a political level.

It is accepted that the SANDF has an existing model for leadership development, and that policies and training institutions exist in support of leadership development. In other words, it is accepted that the SANDF has earnest intentions with regards to leadership development. It is thus not the intention of this research to discredit the SANDF, but to propose a model which can help the organisation to achieve even better results. The current model is also focussed more on the theory of leadership as discussed in Chapter 2, and the proposed FPS Model will attempt to address the character side of a leader (Chapter 3) to a greater extent than the existing model.

Figure 7.1 OUTLINE OF THE FIVE POINT STAR MODEL OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT



7.2 CONVERGENT LEADERSHIP

The reality is that the SANDF consists of soldiers from different ethnic groups, each with its own historical background, culture, value system and outlook on life. Apart from the differences between the four major races (Blacks, Coloureds, Indians and Whites), there is added diversity in the sense that Blacks differ between Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho, Tswana, Swazi, Venda, Tsonga, Ndebele, Xhosa and Zulu in

heritage, language, customs and traditions. There is thus a need for a SANDF mechanism which can provide a commonality in values, ethics and outlook on life in general, and especially on what is desired in an officer as a leader. This is confirmed by Van Rensburg (2001:196) (Chapter 5) who did research on organisational culture in the SANDF. His finding is that the DOD experiences problems in unifying its members into a force with its own group identity. Menon & Kotze's (2007:87) (Chapter 5) research further emphasizes the need of a unifying SANDF philosophy that will promote common values, ethics and an environment within which members are comfortable – their finding being that the SANDF integration process created an environment where different racial groupings are uncomfortable with each other as well as the situation they find themselves in.

7.2.1 Leadership Philosophy

The notion of a leadership philosophy to serve as a bonding agent to promote cohesiveness in the SANDF is not a new one. In 1995 Malan (1995:7) makes reference to the development of “humane military leadership”, with *Ubuntu* as a possible contribution “to find common values upon which to base the development of a unified military culture in South Africa”.

The way in which such a unifying philosophy can develop the leadership character of young military leaders is based upon the German *Innere Führung* model. Their model is a perceptible, if not tangible guide to which values unite *Bundeswehr* members, which outlook on life as part of German society is expected, which conduct is desirable and which behaviours are unacceptable (Germany, JSR no ZDV10,1, 1993; Wilke, 2007)) (Chapter 4). The theory is that internalizing the proverbs of *Innere Führung* to the degree that they become a way of life, will result in officers who demonstrate the desired leadership character; especially emotional intelligence as a recognized component of leadership character. Other leadership character traits which are inherently part of such a unifying philosophy, and which can be developed

by living the philosophy, are honesty, integrity, loyalty, empathy, selfless service, tact, internal locus of control, self-objectivity, caring and fair-mindedness.

The unifying mechanism should initially be more concrete than a philosophy; a convergent policy (more on the policy is explained later in Section 7.2) is needed with clear guidelines and instructions in order to eradicate misunderstanding of what is expected from soldiers in leadership positions. The policy should be internalized to such a degree that it automatically becomes a philosophy or way of life for each military leader. The following section explains the concept of *Ubuntu* and the elements thereof congruent to a leadership character development model for the SANDF.

- ***Ubuntu***

The fact that the SANDF consists of a variety of members who differ on racial and cultural grounds, is inevitably a replication of the demographic reality of the greater South African society. South Africa, as a multi-cultural nation, faces the challenge of finding a social bonding agent to unite its citizens on grounds that are not only acceptable for all South Africans, but also an aspiration for all.

Ubuntu, a customary African concept, which roughly translated means that a person can only exist with dignity through other persons, was made out to be such a social bonding agent for post-apartheid South Africa (Van Rensburg, 2001:35; Magadlela, 2008:2; Theletsane, 2007:65). To explain *Ubuntu*, both Magadlela (2008:2) and Theletsane (2007:67) quote Archbishop Desmond Tutu:

“Africans have a thing called *Ubuntu*; it is about the essence of being human, it is part of the gift Africa is going to give to the world. It embraces hospitality, caring about others, being willing to go that extra mile for one another. We believe that a person is a person through other persons; that my humanity is caught up, bound up inextricably in yours. When I dehumanise you, I

dehumanise myself. The solitary human being is a contradiction in terms, and therefore you seek to work for the common good because your humanity comes into its own in community, in belonging.”

Ubuntu shares some values with Germany’s *Innere Führung*. The notion of “humane leadership” features in both concepts. This is where the leader derives his power from the followers or subordinates (willingly), and where the rights and feelings of followers are understood and appreciated, and where the opinions of followers form an important part of the leader’s decision-making behaviour (Germany, JSR no ZDV10,1, 1993; Magadlela, 2008:2; Malan, 1995:7). Both concepts provide a basis for the unification of members of an organisation with different historical backgrounds, as well as integrating a previously estranged organisation (such as the armed forces of Germany and South Africa) into broader society. The German example is explained in Chapter 4, and Nelson Mandela (Magadlela, 2008:3) explains *Ubuntu* as the reminder of all people that they are part of the greater human family, and that each depend on the other. It can help to smooth differences between people in organisations and it encourages peace and understanding.

Typical values of *Ubuntu* are fairness, respect for people and property, compassion for the old, disabled and less privileged, and a spirit of solidarity (Theletsane, 2007:76; Van Rensburg, 2001:37). Van Rensburg (2001:37) states that the values of this African concept have a lot in common with Western Christian values, and Theletsane, (2007:68) shares this observation. The implication of this is that Blacks, being traditionally African, can have little or no reservations in supporting the values of *Ubuntu*. Correspondingly any Christian, irrespective of race, should find *Ubuntu*’s values and what the concept implies plausible.

Similar to *Innere Führung*, Magadlela (2008:4) identifies the applicability of emotional intelligence in the concept of *Ubuntu*. Although *Innere Führung* does not explicitly make reference to the leadership characteristic of emotional intelligence, it was found in Chapters 4 and 6 that the German model, intentionally or not, applies the theory of

emotional intelligence. In his argument for applying the principles of *Ubuntu* as an antidote to today's socio-political and leadership challenges in South Africa, Magadlela (2008:4) mentions emotional intelligence; that is applying the elements of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill), but in an African context – he calls it “*Ubuntu* intelligence” (he makes reference to further explaining “*Ubuntu* intelligence” at a later stage, but on the date of this research further information was not found).

The observation is that *Ubuntu* is an honest and probable source of a unifying philosophy and convergent leadership policy in the SANDF, but the stage of internalizing it to the degree that *Innere Führung* finds application in Germany's *Bundeswehr* remains a challenge for the SANDF. One cannot dispute the positive contribution that a concept such as *Ubuntu* can have on unifying a society and the possibility it holds for unified humane leadership in the SANDF, and once internalized, the positive effect it may have on the leadership character of SANDF officers. The challenge is not only to find a viable mechanism for unification, but how to internalize it. Van Rensburg (2001:26) also found no unifying national culture in South Africa, but recognizes the possibility of creating one out of the prominent African and Western sub-cultures of South Africa which will be acceptable for both.

Theletsane (2007:93) puts it that the realities in South Africa, of corruption in the Government, violent ethnic and political clashes, rape, and killing of farmers are not reconcilable with *Ubuntu*, not when *Ubuntu* is supposed to be part of everyday life. These examples which contrast the spirit of *Ubuntu* are found throughout Africa with violent ethnic and political conflict rife in Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Zimbabwe to name a few – certainly not complimentary for the continent claiming to be the father of *Ubuntu* (Theletsane, 2007:93).

Another downside to the whole concept of *Ubuntu* is its association with poverty. Although Africa is perceived to be the centre point of *Ubuntu*, it is also viewed as a universal concept relevant to any poor and marginalised community; a way to combat

suffering. Gwala (in Theletsane, 2007:67) mentions the poor Western communities of Harlem in New York and Brixton in the United Kingdom who subscribe to the principles of *Ubuntu*, and Mbigi & Maree (in Van Rensburg, 2001:36) also write about the applicability of the concept to all poor communities, especially in the Western ghettos and the rural communities of developing countries. It is not argued that poverty is a sin, especially if the reason for such a state of affairs is largely outside a community's range of control; reasons such as historical imperial and colonial exploitation, extended natural disasters and little or no access to education. The issue is rather that one would more appreciate a concept associated with prosperity to serve as an example for one's own organisation; in this case in point, the SANDF. The starting point should be that the SANDF has the potential to become an example for the nation on aspects such as aspiring towards common values, humane leadership and living a system that develops exemplary leadership character in its young leaders, rather than being seen as a struggling organisation that needs some convergent policy to save it from its misery.

Although the SANDF stipulates which unifying values should be pursued, including military professionalism, human dignity, integrity, leadership, loyalty, accountability and patriotism (SANDF Corporate Communications, 2008:2) (Chapter 5); the same challenge persists – no example is found of where and how it is internalized in the institution. As explained in Chapter 5, the SANDF has other policy documents addressing leadership concepts, such as the full range of leadership, transformational leadership and the desired character traits of leaders, but the important part of influencing that inner part of a person to such an extent that these policies become a way of living remains lacking. In other words as the ancient Greeks put it, to engrave these qualities, deeper than personality, into the inner part of the SANDF's young military leaders, so that they become leaders with character (Hunter, 2004:142) (Chapter 3). The following section proposes Convergent Leadership as a solution to the challenge of internalizing leadership character.

7.2.2 A Convergent Leadership Policy for the South African National Defence Force

Explaining a concept such as *Ubuntu* should not cause one to lose focus on the issue at stake, namely leadership character. The argument is that by internalizing a convergent concept such as *Innere Führung*, an environment is created wherein becoming a leader with the desired leadership character is inevitable. It is also not the intention that such a convergent concept should, in its entirety, be focussed on developing leadership character alone; but that one of the positive results of internalizing the concept is military leaders with the appropriate leadership character. The *Bundeswehr* does not deny the importance of other methods of influencing leadership character, such as a proper selection process, training institutions where officers are firstly moulded into soldiers, and then trained in officership (including interventions focussed on leadership character); and military leadership centres or institutions where academic research produces up-to-date theories on leadership development. However, it chose to present the concept of *Innere Führung* as their most important constituent in developing leaders with character (Pommerin, 2007; Wilke, 2007) (Chapters 1 & 4).

Although the *Bundeswehr* is not challenged with as much cultural diversity as the SANDF, it faced similar challenges of unifying diverse cultures into one institution, as well as transforming the nature of the armed force into an institution to which the rest of society can relate, and be part of (Collier & Pedley, 2005:120; Wilke, 2007). That forms the basis of developing a policy for the SANDF which will serve as a bonding agent for all its members, and which offers an institutional way of life which all soldiers can aspire to; and importantly, which will present the positive result of leaders with character.

7.2.2.1 The Unifying Mechanism

The unifying bonding agent for the SANDF will be called Convergent Leadership – to signify the convergence of diverse cultures into a unified organisation and the importance of appropriate leadership character.

A distinct lesson to be taken from the *Bundeswehr*'s example is that it took the lead. Other than the German Basic Law, it did not wait for a national unifying policy, but developed *Innere Führung* as a military concept, markedly aligned with their Basic Law, to address the leadership challenges in their armed force.

The SANDF does not need to wait for Government to establish a national culture such as *Ubuntu*, before developing its own Convergent Leadership. South Africa's Constitution offers the values and direction, acceptable for all South Africans irrespective of heritage, race or culture, to serve as the basis for Convergent Leadership in the SANDF – but to overcome the challenge of internalizing convergent leadership to become a way of SANDF life, a convergent leadership policy is needed.

7.2.2.2 The Policy

The intention of the policy will not be to replace existing SANDF leadership development doctrine and documents; it will rather be an overarching policy to firstly create the needed unified institutional milieu in which leadership development will flourish, and secondly, to internalize it as the required way of SANDF life. The expectation is that this will contribute, together with the other components of the FPS Model, to the development of the desired leadership character of officers. The Convergent Leadership Policy should not address typical theory on leadership and leadership development, as that remains with existing SANDF doctrine and documents, but it should include the values of the institution, as well as what the expected conduct of an officer in daily SANDF life must be, and it should leave no doubt as to what will constitute unacceptable conduct.

The success of this component of the FPS Model depends as much on getting the policy internalized as on the contents of the policy itself. With regards to the contents of the policy, it should undoubtedly be prescriptive, and unambiguously elucidate what is expected from soldiers, and especially officers as military leaders. The policy must be promulgated on at least the political level of a ministerial regulation, and should direct the SANDF on the following typical aspects or philosophies of Convergent Leadership:

- Indisputable allegiance to the Constitution and the Rule of Law.
- The SANDF is an indissoluble part of South African society, and members of society may voluntarily serve in the SANDF, and members of the SANDF may willingly re-enter the civilian part of society.
- The desired character traits or qualities of military leaders as already identified in the SA Army LCAMPS Manual (2000:2-1-3) and explained in Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.1. These are physical and moral courage, judgement, willpower, flexibility, knowledge and integrity. This need not be regarded as an exhaustive list and can include other characteristics which the SANDF may deem appropriate.
- The values of the SANDF as stated by its Directorate Corporate Communications (Chapter 5; SANDF Corporate Communications, 2008:2). These values are:
 - Military Professionalism (learning culture, civil military relations, discipline, ethical conduct [operations], excellence).
 - Human Dignity (respect, tolerance, fairness).

- Integrity (honesty, credibility, trustworthiness, transparency).
 - Leadership (visionary qualities, teamwork, caring, exemplary conduct, empowerment, communication).
 - Loyalty (faithfulness, comradeship).
 - Accountability (responsibility, reliability)
 - Patriotism [Country] (pride, honour, duty, service, courage, sacrifice, responsible citizenship)
- Emphasis on the proper conduct of a military professional, including emphasis on the value of proper examples set by seniors. The rights of soldiers, and as important, the responsibilities that always accompany rights. It is left to the SANDF to specify the rights, responsibilities, proper conduct (as well as conduct that will not be tolerated); this research suggests that this should form part of the policy. The spirit of the Constitution should guide the spirit of the policy, with due awareness of the distinct nature of the military environment and the justifiable restrictions of rights universally applicable to soldiers.

The FPS Model is a total, interrelated concept, meaning that its five components will not serve their purpose well if the components are viewed as separate individual components which can be implemented in isolation. One cannot explain one component without bringing in one or more of the other components. More will be explained on the topic of political participation in Section 7.3, but it needs to be mentioned that Convergent Leadership has to be driven by a joint task group, similar to the *Innere Führung* example. According to the German Federal Ministry of Defence's internet website (2006) their Joint Task Group serves as an advisory council to the Federal Minister of Defence on the concept of *Innere Führung* by providing him with appraisals and assessments. Such a South African joint task

group should at least consist of a senior official from outside the DOD, a recognized academic, a senior official in the DOD and a General in the SANDF, and it should act in an advisory capacity to the national Minister of Defence. This joint task group should have unrestrained inspection power in the SANDF on the concept of Convergent Leadership, and should provide the Minister with officially documented feedback. It is emphasised that the feedback to the Minister will only be as valuable as the political will to act upon it.

A further component of the FPS Model which will be explained later in the chapter, but which is also essential in driving Convergent Leadership is the envisaged SANDF Centre for Leadership. A senior member of this institution can be the academic to serve on the joint task group. The objective of such an institution is not to be a super unit where SANDF members receive tutoring on Convergent Leadership and then become leaders with character. Short courses should be offered, but that such a centre should be the driving force of the total policy on Convergent Leadership is of key significance; in other words, it should ensure that the concept remains alive in all four SANDF Services.

Convergent Leadership should thus become a way of life for all military members; the supposition being that it will unite members into a unified force who aspire to shared values, and that it will create the milieu in which young military leaders will develop into officers with proper leadership character. The leadership character qualities which a Convergent Leadership way of life in the SANDF will develop are emotional intelligence, honesty, integrity, loyalty, empathy, selfless service, tact, internal locus of control, self-objectivity, caring, fair-mindedness and moral courage. The next section will explain the second component of the FPS Model namely Political Participation.

7.3 POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

As explained in Chapter 6, the inclusion of Political Participation or involvement as a component of the FPS Model is not meant to dilute the concept of *Trias Politica*. The implementation and administration of the model should remain the responsibility of the SANDF, but political guidance, as a higher-level support system, is necessary to ensure the success of the model. It is also not claimed that the SANDF currently operates at its own discretion without political guidance and boundaries, but direction from the highest echelons of government with regards to leadership and leadership character development is lacking.

One of the reasons that political participation is necessary is that it will provide the mandate for the SANDF to fully engage in the process of implementing the model and making it work. On a philosophical level, the conduct (in the sense of leadership character) of politicians as the highest level of Government, will influence the conduct of leaders on lower levels, including young military leaders, and only exemplary behaviour and leadership character should serve as example for young military leaders. However, the FPS Model does not propose to directly shape the conduct of politicians at national level, but acknowledges the influence they have by means of setting an example. The appropriateness of political participation is confirmed by the following extract from Wilke's (2007) presentation on the concept of *Innere Führung*: "Leadership Development and Civic Education in the *Bundeswehr* is the **political mission** to implement the standards and values laid down in the Basic Law relative to operational armed forces in a democracy and to put into practice the 'Citizen in Uniform'".

On a practical level, Political Participation implies that at least the Minister of Defence should get involved and demonstrate his belief in the concept. A further reason for this is that it will improve the probability of securing funds to fully implement the FPS Model. It is not necessary to analyze the budget to explain this thought, as implementing the five components of the FPS Model will require funding. Establishing

the SANDF Centre for Leadership will involve capital and maintenance expenses, and driving Convergent Leadership, Interventions for Leadership and Superior Selection (the latter two are discussed later in this chapter) will make demands on the SANDF budget. However, none of these expenses will be fruitless, as they are already established concepts which analysis has proved to be successful in other comparative militaries.

As explained in Section 7.2, one of the driving forces to secure success of the FPS Model, is a joint task group on Convergent Leadership that reports to the Minister of Defence. If the Minister is not an avid supporter of the concept, it will make it difficult to internalize it as a way of SANDF life. Then again, the Minister of Defence will have difficulties of his/her own, such as convincing Parliament to approve expenditure if the rest of his/her political peers do not support the concept. There should, however, be little or no aversion to the notion of Convergent Leadership, as it promotes South Africa's Constitutional values and principles; it gives the hope of unifying diverse cultures; its underpinning principle of humane leadership is in line with a military force which is intent on being non-offensive; and it can be the starting point of expansion to the rest of South African Government Services and society.

The SANDF does not need to wait for political direction to launch the model. All of its components are in harmony with the Constitution, subsequent legislation and the nature of the SANDF. None of the Model's components are completely peculiar concepts to the SANDF; it's the art of moulding the concepts into an interrelated leadership and character development model, and improving on existing procedures such as officer selection and interventions to develop leadership character; as well as implementing internationally recognized concepts such as a military leadership centre and a convergent leadership policy, which is the challenge. Having said this, Political Participation right from the beginning is the preferred state of affairs, and if not right from the beginning, should be ensured as soon as possible to give the Model longevity.

To conclude, Political Participation might not directly influence the leadership character of young military leaders, but it is essential in keeping the FPS Model alive in the SANDF. On a philosophical level, the leadership-character-related conduct of politicians, high level government officials and military generals will influence the perceptions of juniors about what is right and what is wrong. The next component of the FPS model is Superior Selection.

7.4 SUPERIOR SELECTION

The British Army has a superior process when it comes to the selection of their future officers. It is not in the nature of the FPS Model to rank its components in sequential order, but if one has to determine where the starting point of officer leadership character development is, one may argue that it begins at the selection of candidates with the desired inner make-up and intelligence.

The SANDF has an officer selection process, but it cannot claim to be the custodian of Superior Selection. In Chapter 3 it was explained that certain innate qualities of a person distinguish a leader from a non-leader, and that these already-present qualities can be identified and further developed. Further, as explained in Chapters 4 and 5, all the relevant armed forces accept this theory and apply it in practice; from there the practice of selecting candidate officers at a selection board, and subsequent training and education to develop them into officers. If any person, irrespective of his innate qualities and intelligence could be trained and developed into officers, then the officer selection process would be a waste of time.

All subsequent interventions to further develop the leadership character of candidates will be more effective if the proper candidates are identified, and that can only be done if a proper selection process is in place. The following suggestion explains how elements of the British Model (Allender, 2007; Norman, 2007) (Chapter 4) can be adapted for an improved officer selection process in the SANDF:

- The OSB should be institutionalized – in other words a separate SANDF unit should be established with the selection of officer candidates for the SANDF as its line function. This will address the weakness of the current SANDF model of not having board members serve for at least a period of three years, nor being specialists in the field of officer selection. It is granted that the establishment of a separate OSB unit will put a strain on the SANDF's budget, but proper selection of officer candidates is important, and to have military leaders with the appropriate leadership character is an asset for the country as a whole; that should weigh in favour of investing in Superior Selection. Capital expenses for the establishment of a OSB unit can also be minimised, as previous elite units of the SANDF, such as the SA Army Women's College in George (Western Cape Province) stand disused, and could be transformed into a functioning unit (Abrahams, 2008:7).

A separate OSB unit offers the further advantage of making the selection of candidates a continuous process taking place throughout the year. This eliminates the mass appearance of candidates once or twice a year, and offers the opportunity for specialist selectors to intensely focus for longer periods on fewer candidates per session.

An institutionalised SANDF OSB can also adopt the practice of accommodating civilians (in other words testing candidates who have not yet joined the SANDF) in its selection process, with the selection results being valid for a number of years determined by the SANDF. This will increase the supply pool and broaden the margin of choice for the SANDF, as newly-appointed members who aspire to become officers will compete with previously tested candidates for available officer positions. This increased pool to choose from will minimise the risk of investing resources in the officer development of candidates who complied with the minimum requirements for officership, and thereby minimize the possibility of candidates not successfully completing the Officers Course. The SANDF will thus be in a position to select

candidates who comply with more than the minimum requirements and thereby increase the success rate of the Officers Course; and if necessary it will present the opportunity to raise the standards of the Officers Course.

Similar to Political Participation, Superior Selection does not develop leadership character, but its significance as a component of the FPS Model is that it identifies the best candidates in whom to invest valuable resources and develop into leaders with character, and rejects unsuitable candidates. It thus makes all subsequent actions and activities related to leadership development worthwhile, without wasting resources on unsuitable candidates. Interventions for Leadership Character Development as a further component of the FPS Model will be discussed in the following section.

7.5 INTERVENTIONS FOR LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

It is common for all defence forces (including those of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada and South Africa) to engage in physically demanding activities (the physical challenge automatically incorporates a mental challenge, as mind over matter is more often than not the answer to mastering the challenge), usually during the officer training phase, that supposedly develop the character side of leaders. However, the only academic research found on whether these activities actually have a positive effect on leadership character, is Erasmus' (in Erasmus & Van Rensburg, 2001:273) (Chapter 3) finding that adventurous training is at least perceived by the candidates engaged in the training as having a positive effect on their character. This is to some extent confirmed by Cuthbert (2007:22) (Chapter 4) who states that the British Army's approach to adventurous training has been influenced by war. He writes "...leadership development benefits of hard training in rugged terrain were recognized by those charged by Winston Churchill with setting up British commando training during World War II". Those war training activities, recognized in the 1940s as being beneficial for leadership development, resulted in today's typical adventurous training activities of horse riding, scuba diving, offshore sailing, rock

climbing, mountaineering, free-fall parachuting, kayaking, endurance hiking and similar physically and mentally challenging and unfamiliar exercises (Erasmus & Van Rensburg, 2001:273-281; Cuthbert, 2007:24).

The word “unfamiliar” is important, as it is more daunting to attempt an unfamiliar physical challenge than it is to face a familiar activity. The exercise must also be challenging to the degree of being intimidating. The idea is that the individual partaking in the exercise needs to transform his/her inner self to get so far as to initially at least attempt the challenge, and later to master the challenge.

Other interventions offered at officer training institutions to develop leadership are explained in Chapters 4 and 5, and include exposure to concepts such as the theories on leadership and lectures on Officership and Military Ethics. However, these types of actions do not require active involvement by the candidates with regards to their leadership character. It is more a case of candidates receiving information, and afterwards writing tests and assignments to demonstrate what they have learned about the topics. Conversely, adventurous training directly addresses the inner being of candidates. Candidates are exposed to real-life situations where they must firstly demonstrate the presence of certain leadership character qualities within themselves when they initially attempt a challenge, and secondly develop those qualities when they learn (through tenacity and trial and error) how to master the challenge. The importance of other interventions to develop leadership is acknowledged, and officer training institutions should continue to make use of them, but the appeal of the FPS Model is for adventurous training to be valued and understood for its potential in developing leadership character, and therefore engaged in on a larger scale than is currently the case in the SANDF.

The FPS model suggests that the SANDF engage in adventurous training on a greater scale to be more in line with the British example (Cuthbert, 2007:19-30). The following explanation clarifies how adventurous training will benefit officer leadership character development in the SANDF.

7.5.1. Adventurous Training

Typical adventurous training exercises inevitably make one aware of one's own weaknesses and shortcomings, but once mastered, also of one's strengths and abilities – this is in line with the theory on the identified leadership character quality of emotional intelligence, namely self-awareness (Goleman, 2005:97) (Chapter 3).

The following two leadership character traits or qualities which were tested during Erasmus & Van Rensburg's (2001:273-281) research, will suffice to explain the concept (they tested the six qualities of physical and moral courage, self-control, confidence, overcoming setbacks, selfless service and acceptance of advice and criticism, but explained that other qualities could be tested and developed in similar fashion):

- ***Courage***

People fear unfamiliar and daunting physical challenges. For example, most people will experience fear if challenged for the first time in their life to mount and ride a huge animal such as a horse, or to parachute out of an aeroplane for the first time. First of all, one realises that one is scared. The next step is that one must find it within the inner self to overcome that fear, in other words demonstrate courage. Once the challenge is mastered, one has learned something about oneself – the ability to demonstrate courage by overcoming fear – but the value is in the ability to use this lesson learned in real life. Most soldiers will experience fear on the battlefield, and if that fear is not overcome, the soldier will be a danger to him/herself and to his/her fellow soldiers. If the soldier can recall experiencing fear during training, but also that he/she found it within him/herself to overcome that fear, the theory is that he/she will sooner demonstrate courage than a soldier who has never had previous opportunities to overcome fear.

This also holds true for moral courage. A soldier would find it fearful to report the misconduct of a senior officer. Similar to the example above, he/she can draw on his/her experiences of overcoming fear, and do the right thing by reporting the misconduct irrespective of his/her perceptions about the outcome of his/her action.

- ***Withstanding Setbacks***

Confidence that has been built up by starting to master an unfamiliar activity such as horse riding, can quickly be lost if the horse, for example, throws the rider. A person abseiling for the first time might find it frustrating if his/her peers master the art while he/she fails to progress at the same rate. The person will have to demonstrate the ability to withstand these setbacks, and find the determination within the inner self to regain his/her confidence and show the strength of mind to master the challenge. Once again, these setbacks should be regarded as learning opportunities for them to have value, and not be experienced as demoralisers. This experience can be drawn upon later in one's career when coming across real-life setbacks.

The development of other leadership character qualities is inherent to adventurous training due the nature of such exercises. If participants have to decide on, and plan and execute an exercise from the beginning to the end, qualities such as initiative, tenacity, getting others to follow one's viewpoint, depending on others and realizing that others depend on oneself, and proper use of discretion will all be needed and further developed. Table 7.1 gives an overview of various authors' opinions on some of the desired leadership character qualities or traits which can be developed by adventurous training.

Table 7.1 Adventurous Training and Leadership Character

Downes	Mullin	Du Brin	Kouzes & Posner
Accepting advice and criticism	Courage	Courage	Caring
Confidence	Decisiveness	Credibility	Cooperation
Loyalty	Dependability	Emotional stability	Courage
Physical bearing and conduct	Initiative	Empathy	Dependability
Physical and moral courage	Integrity	Enthusiasm	Determination
Self-control	Judgement	Flexibility	Forward-looking/Foresighted
Selfless service	Loyalty	Honesty	Honesty
Withstanding setbacks	Unselfishness	Sense of humour	Inspirational

Source: Downes, 1991:128; Mullin in Shriberg *et al*, 2002:136; Kouzes & Posner, 2003:25; Du Brin, 1995:29

During their research, Erasmus & Van Rensburg (2001:273-281) also found that participants in adventurous training exercises obtain more value from the training if the purpose of it is explained before the training begins. In other words if candidates are aware of how certain elements in the exercise are supposed to develop courage, and other elements to help one in overcoming setbacks, such participants will perceive the training more helpful with regards to leadership character development than participants who blindly partake in such training exercises without prior knowledge of the purpose of the exercise. This is important to realize, for the research proved that internationally and in the SANDF, although the institutions making use of it might believe it has value, participants (candidate officers) in these exercises are not aware of the development value of it. A simple action such as informing participants on the theory about the value of adventurous training, and explaining the purpose of specific exercises, may enhance the value of the exercise.

The next part of the Interventions for Leadership Character Development component of the FPS Model addresses the length of the SANDF Officers Formative Training.

7.5.2 Time Spent on Developing Leadership Character

It takes the SANDF seventeen weeks to transform a candidate officer into an officer, whereas the British Army achieves the same goal with intellectually more mature candidates only after a whole year (De La Hey, 2007; Janse Van Rensburg, 2008) (Chapters 4 & 5). According to Cuthbert (2007:22) officer cadets of the Australian Army spend eighteen months training at the Royal Military College Duntroon, and the Canadian Forces cadets undergo five years of studying at the Royal Military College of Canada (unless they are already graduates, who spend four months at the Recruit and Leadership School, St. Jean).

An attribute such as leadership character (which can only develop over time) will be better developed over a longer period of training than over a shorter one. Officers graduating from RMAS and the Royal Military College of Canada will have a stronger leadership character foundation to further develop throughout their careers as officers, than SANDF officers graduating from the SA Army Gymnasium.

If the SANDF is serious about developing the leadership character of its young leaders, the officer training should at least be extended to a year, with a shortened course of approximately six months for more mature candidates, such as late entry officers. A longer course will also make it viable to accommodate the aforementioned suggestion of increasing the focus on adventurous training.

7.5.3 Selection of Instructors at Officer Training Institutions

The SANDF can also benefit from the British example of seriously selecting instructors for the officer training institutions (De La Hey, 2007; Tyler, 2008:1-5; United Kingdom Sandhurst, 2009:2) (Chapter 4). These instructors are responsible for the formative development of candidates and influence them during their transition from candidates to officers. Although the British system is unique (Gunning in Tyler, 2008:2) in that they make use of non-commissioned officers to train their officers, the

SANDEF can benefit from a system where instructors are selected for their specific ability to develop officers.

It is suggested that instructors of the SA Army Gymnasium be evaluated for their ability to be perceived as mentors while being prime examples of officership to the candidates. Senior captains who portray maturity should be identified and recommended by their respective units' commanding officer for a three-year tenure at the officer training institution. Before appointment at the SA Army Gymnasium, the candidate instructors should undergo an evaluation, and the most suitable ones appointed. A way to ensure that enough senior captains apply for instructor positions is to couple their tenure as instructors to promotion. A senior captain could be promoted to major halfway through his term at the training institution – in other words it must be a sought-after career move to do a term as instructor for officer candidates.

Military instructors at the SA Military Academy have the responsibility to further develop the leadership character of military students busy with tertiary studies (first-, second- and third-year academic studies). The ability of the instructors to be perceived by the students as examples to follow will be enhanced if the instructors are university graduates. It is therefore suggested that instructors of the SA Military Academy meet the additional requirement of having a university degree.

In conclusion, Interventions for Leadership Character Development of the FPS Model suggest a greater appreciation for the value of adventurous training and more participation therein, a longer time spent at the SA Army Gymnasium in the training of officers, and that attention be paid to the quality of instructors. The next section addresses the last component of the FPS Model; the proposed SANDEF Centre for Leadership.

7.6 A DEDICATED MILITARY LEADERSHIP INSTITUTION: THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE CENTRE FOR LEADERSHIP

All the researched countries' armed forces, except South Africa's SANDF, have a military leadership institution. The envisaged institution, SIGLA, is not categorised as an SANDF leadership institution comparable to those in Germany, the United Kingdom and Canada (University of Stellenbosch Campus News, 2009:16) (Chapter 5). Germany has the *Zentrum Innere Führung*, the United Kingdom their Defence Leadership Centre, and Canada has the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute.

7.6.1 Germany

The *Zentrum Innere Führung* was established at Koblenz during the conception phase of the *Bundeswehr* (early 1990s), and in 1994 a branch was established at Strausberg near Berlin (German Federal Ministry of Defence, 2006:1). The *Zentrum Innere Führung* is the *Bundeswehr* institution that promotes the principles of *Innere Führung*. One of its main functions is to adapt the military leadership philosophy into practical guidelines for application by the armed forces. The Centre assumes the leading role for "...the further conceptual development of *Innere Führung*" (German Federal Ministry of Defence, 2006:1). It is thus the institution that keeps the overarching leadership philosophy alive in the *Bundeswehr*. In its function of guiding the practical application of *Innere Führung*, it is the link between research and teaching; it collects, analyzes and evaluates social science research and translates it into functional information for the *Bundeswehr*. In Chapter 4 it is explained that one of the goals of *Innere Führung* is to ensure that the *Bundeswehr* remains an accepted institution and is recognised as an essential part of German society (citizen in uniform in a democratic society). In this sense the centre is used as the "...meeting place for leading politicians and military leaders" (German Federal Ministry of Defence, 2006:2). Politicians and leaders of allied forces and of other countries are also invited to attend seminars, presentations and discussions at the centre.

7.6.2 The United Kingdom

The Defence Leadership Centre (DLC) is part of the Defence Leadership and Management Centre (DLMC), which is part of the Defence College of Management and Technology, which in turn is part of the Defence Academy at Shrivenham. The DLMC consists of (United Kingdom Defence Academy, 2008:1):

- The Defence Leadership Centre.
- The Defence Management Centre.
- The Defence School of Finance and Management.
- The Category Management Learning and Development Team.

The Defence Leadership Centre was established in 2002 with the intention of helping to develop leadership skills throughout British Defence. Part of the centre's aim is to search for the elusive answer to what makes effective and respected leadership. The way in which it approaches its function is to learn from history, philosophy, science and real life experiences to assist British Defence in its leadership development doctrine and practice (United Kingdom DLC, 2004:iii). The function of the DLC is explained on the back page of the centre's book as being the "...focal point within the Ministry of Defence for policy and best practice in leadership, and works with [military] service and civilian personnel authorities to promote best practice in leadership development" (United Kingdom DLC, 2004).

7.6.3 Canada

The Canadian Forces Leadership Institute (CFLI) was established in 2001, and forms part of the Canadian Defence Academy at Kingston, Ontario. It is stated in Chapter 4 that the mission of the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute, as part of the Canadian

Defence Academy, emphasises the importance of research, concept development and doctrine with the purpose to generate effective military leaders (International Military Testing Association, 2005:4). Part of the function of the CFLI is to keep the Canadian Forces up to date on the core concepts of leadership and the profession of arms. The Institute, similar to the British Centre, identifies best leadership development practices and articulates them into something meaningful for the Canadian Forces. It achieves this by conducting research, analysis and evaluations, and producing documents and doctrine for use by not only the Canadian Forces, but also other Government agencies. The CFLI also presents lectures on leadership-related topics, and continuously updates the Canadian Forces on emerging concepts (Canada National Defence, CFLI, 2008:1).

None of these leadership institutions is old, which implies that the concept of such institutions is a recent development that is viewed as an important phenomenon in the field of military leadership.

7.6.4 South Africa

South Africa does not have a military leadership institution. The FPS Model suggests that the country, through the SANDF, has the opportunity to show the intention of being contemporary on military leadership development by investing in such a national asset. The proposed SANDF Centre for Leadership will not only benefit South Africa, but also the continent and especially the SADC.

One of the roles of the SANDF Centre for Leadership will be to serve as the nodal point of Convergent Leadership. The centre should be mandated to develop Convergent Leadership to its full potential (through research, analysis and evaluations of best practices) so that it can be infused into the SANDF as a way of military life. The centre should also monitor the collaboration of SANDF units, which implies that the Joint Task Group on Convergent Leadership should maintain a close relationship with the centre.

The importance of scientific research and analysis, and the study of best practices cannot be overemphasized. It is the only way to keep up to date on the latest developments in the military leadership field, and the only way to be part of emerging concepts and to perhaps become one of the leading defence forces in the area of military leadership. It is also a way to ensure that the SANDF's leadership development policy, doctrine and training practices is based on sound research, and that it serves the purpose it is intended to, namely to produce military leaders with character.

Although it must be accepted that the SANDF Centre for Leadership will be a military institution, focussed on military leadership, it need not be exclusively reserved for the military. The principles of Convergent Leadership can facilitate the unification of society on commonly accepted principles; the SANDF is part of society, its future leaders are initially produced by society, and they are free to leave the military environment and pursue a civilian occupation. Other Government departments should be able to benefit from the research and experience of the centre by attending seminars and drawing from best practices to address their own leadership issues.

The FPS model is not prescriptive with regards to the organizational structuring of the centre; it is concerned with making the need for such an institution known, and highlighting the benefits of it (the contribution and benefits of each component of the FPS Model is summarized in Table 7.2). However, it is suggested that the centre should form part of the SA Military Academy. The reason for this is that the SA Military Academy is an established institution with a recognized research capability (if not yet acknowledged by the SANDF, the Academy's Faculty consists of intellectuals recognized by the international academic community). This would also be in line with the British and Canadian examples for such institutions to be part of their military or defence academies, and the academics staffed at such an institution, while performing their function of research and the translation of the research into usable

information for the SANDF, will blend effectively with the academic milieu offered by the Faculty of Military Science of the SA Military Academy.

In conclusion it is submitted that the proposed SANDF Centre for Leadership be the nodal point of Convergent Leadership; it will be the place where the planning is done on all aspects relating to Converging Leadership, such as the contents of the policy and how to make it an integral part of SANDF military life, where continuous updating of the policy as a result of continuous evaluation on its progress takes place, and where new strategies are developed to keep Convergent Leadership alive in the SANDF. The Centre will also ensure that the SANDF stays up to date on emerging thoughts on military leadership (through research, analysis and national and international evaluation of best practices), and will give the SANDF the opportunity to participate in a meaningful fashion in the international arena on military leadership matters. The centre should thus be utilised to its full potential by *inter alia* serving as a meeting place between South African role players and leading politicians of other countries and military leaders of allied forces. Further, it will assist the SANDF by translating scientific research into usable policies, doctrine and training practices. Lastly, it holds the potential to benefit the rest of South African society, and other Government departments, as well as other African Countries, especially the SADC, by becoming a leading institution on leadership.

Table 7.2 summarizes the contribution and benefits of each component of the FPS model to leadership character development in the SANDF.

Table 7.2 THE CONTRIBUTION AND BENEFITS OF THE COMPONENTS OF THE FIVE POINT STAR MODEL TO LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

COMPONENTS OF THE FPS MODEL	CONTRIBUTION AND BENEFITS
Convergent Leadership Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unifies different cultures and backgrounds - Solution to the challenge of internalizing a policy/philosophy - Ensures that SANDF values are shared by all members - Compatible with the spirit of a non-offensive military force - Develops leadership character
Political Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mandates the implementation of the FPS Model - Provides a legislative foundation for a convergent leadership policy - Life-giving force of FPS Model ensuring its longevity - Recognizes the potential of exemplary examples by senior politicians, generals and officials - Influences leadership character development
Superior Selection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Makes provision for an institutionalised officer selection board - Ensures continuous selection of candidates throughout each year <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides an increased supply of candidates - Identifies most suitable candidates with inherent leadership character qualities - Rejects unsuitable candidates which minimizes wasting of resources - Improves the effect of subsequent interventions to develop leadership character - Influences leadership character development
Interventions for Leadership Character Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maintains current good practices - Recognizes the value of adventurous training - Makes provision for extended officer training periods <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides specially selected instructors - Addresses the inner being of young military leaders - Develops leadership character
Dedicated Military Leadership Institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Serves as the nodal point of Convergent Leadership - Ensures that the SANDF is up to date on the latest research on military leadership - Translates scientific research into comprehensible and useful policies, doctrine and training practices in the SANDF - Potential benefit to other Government departments and rest of society - Potential of becoming an internationally recognized role player in the field of military leadership - Influences leadership character development

7.7 SUMMARY

The FPS Model is a comprehensive approach to leadership character development and does not single out a specific component as more important than any of the others. The complex nature of a topic such as leadership is acknowledged, and the model does not address all aspects of leadership, but focuses on leadership

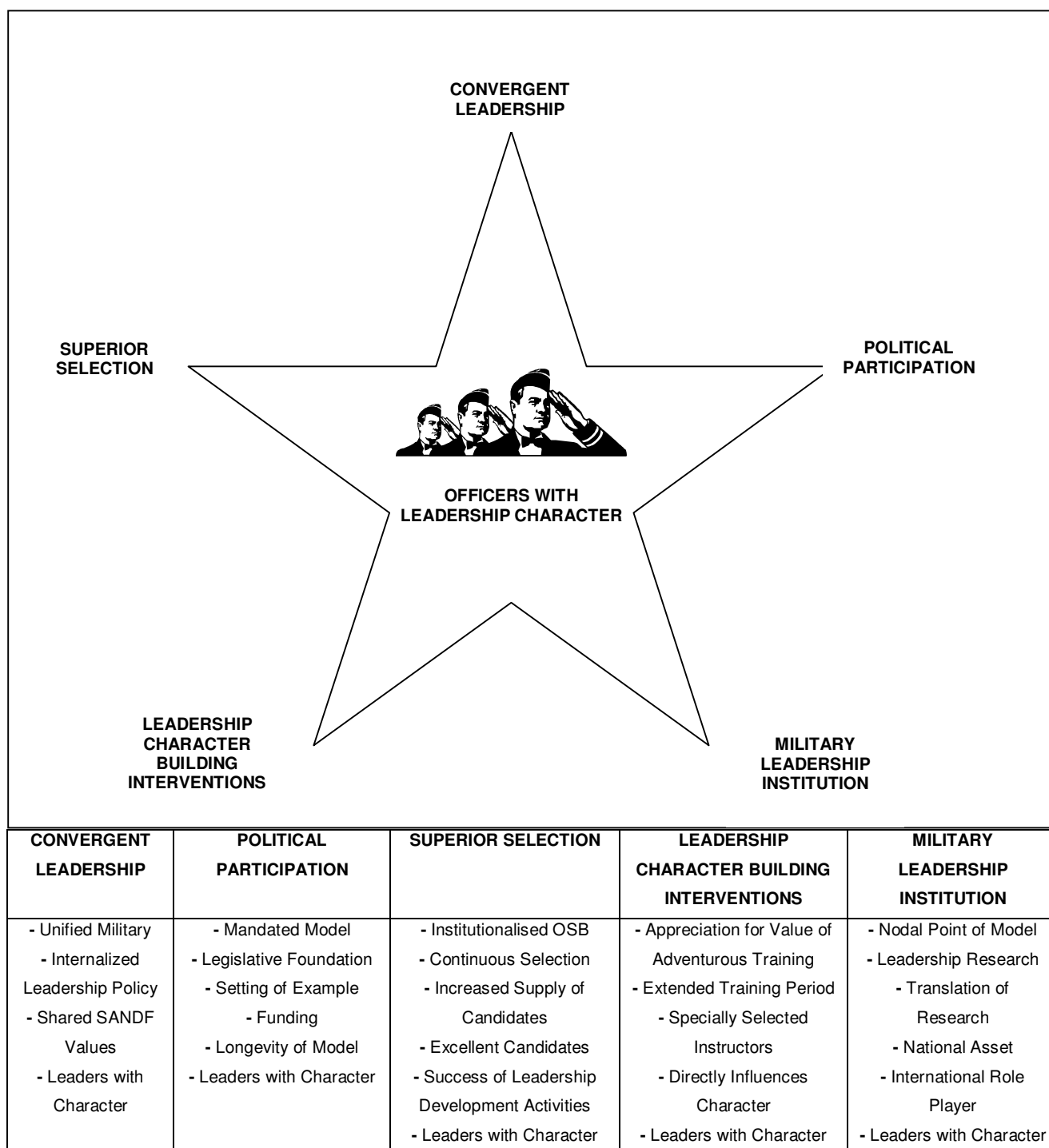
character as an interconnected portion of the total concept of leadership. In other words, although the influence, behaviour and adaptability of leaders are important, it is believed that the model addresses the issue of who the leader is. The five components of the FPS Model, directly or indirectly, positively influence the character side of leaders; to quote Levicki (1998:93) when he elaborates on character: “the ... profound composition of the inner person”.

The memories of atrocities by its predecessor have not been forgotten by the SANDF. It is currently of a non-aggressive nature and comprises people with many different cultures and backgrounds, including those who, historically, were military enemies. This calls for a unifying mechanism which creates an environment in which humane military leaders can be developed and where all strive to live the same way of military life; one where human beings are valued and the inner being of leaders is of such a nature that subordinates want to follow them, rather than have to follow them.

The model firstly promotes a unified organizational culture and environment which is conducive to the development of military leaders with character; an environment in which military leaders know what type of conduct and outlook on life in general is acceptable. Secondly, it realizes that longevity of the model is vital; it will only serve its purpose over time, and cannot be expected to have an immediate positive effect on the leadership character of young officers. This makes political recognition of, and involvement in, the model an important component, with the added advantage that proper examples set by senior politicians will positively influence the character of young military leaders. The model thirdly ensures that candidates with the desired inherent character qualities are identified, which ensures the efficient investment of resources in their further development; it improves the probability that leadership character development activities will be successful. Fourthly, it endorses specific activities or interventions which are believed, if properly applied, to directly affect the character side of leaders. Lastly, the FPS Model makes provision for an institution to be the driving force of all military leadership-related development efforts. Such an

institution will be proof that the SANDF is serious in its approach to leadership development, and provides the potential for South Africa to become a world leader, and more specifically a Southern African leader in the business of military leadership. Figure 7.2 is a compilation of Figure 7.1 and Table 7.2 and provides the final summarized illustration of the FPS Model of Military Leadership Character Development.

Figure 7.2 THE FIVE POINT STAR MODEL OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT



As a final point; the contribution and uniqueness of the FPS Model is firstly that it introduces components not present in the current SANDF Model; secondly, it

improves on current SANDF practices; and thirdly, it proposes that all five components of the FPS Model should be viewed and applied as an interrelated whole. To give it a formula, the following is offered:

$$X = a + b + c + d + e$$

where

X = Leadership Character Development in the SANDF

a = Convergent Leadership

b = Political Participation

c = Superior Selection

d = Leadership Character Development Interventions

e = Military Leadership Institution

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

“In times of change, learners inherit the earth while the learned find themselves beautifully equipped to deal with a world that no longer exists.”

Eric Hoffer

This study addresses shortcomings in the SANDF's current approach to developing young military leaders. The literature overview begins with classical contemplations of centuries ago and progresses to post-World War II and contemporary approaches to the study of leadership. Attention is also given to the leader as a person with certain innate qualities or traits which distinguish leaders from non-leaders; and that these innate qualities can be identified and further developed.

Militaries believe that leaders can be formed, from there the reference to officer training as “formative training”. In order to gather data on what militaries do to form officer candidates into officers, field research was done in Germany, the United Kingdom and South Africa, and information was supplied by the Canadian Forces.

A comparative analysis of the different countries showed some similarities, such as that all the countries engage in officer selection processes and in subsequent officer training at various training institutions. Some militaries also have commonalities in their recent military history, such as the coming into being of the current German *Bundeswehr* and South Africa's SANDF, as well as their policies of being primarily non-offensive military forces. Although similarities exist, important differences are present; even differences in the similarities. For example, all four of the countries follow a system of officer selection, but the United Kingdom, compared to Germany, Canada and South Africa, approaches its selection with significantly greater intensity. All four countries offer training at officer training institutions, but valuable lessons are learned, for example from the British Army on the time spent on developing officers,

and the seriousness with which they select their instructors (colour sergeants), as well as the value they attach to adventurous training. Of the four countries, only South Africa has not invested in a military leadership institution, while the importance, and contribution of such an institution to staying relevant in the field of military leadership, is well illustrated by the Canadian Forces.

The shortcomings identified in the current leadership development model of the SANDF are as follows:

- The SANDF is racially and culturally a diverse force and is in need of a unifying leadership philosophy based on values and principles acceptable to all its members. The organization has no officially accepted overarching leadership policy to give direction to leadership development practices.
- The SANDF does not receive adequate support and guidance from political level, and is therefore not mandated to fully engage in a total military leadership development project. Further, certain examples set by politicians and officials in the higher echelons of government are not conducive to the leadership character development of young military leaders.
- The process of selecting candidates for officer training in the SANDF needs to be improved. The SANDF does not have an institutionalized officer selection board, and the members of the board are not selection professionals. Further, a short time is spent on evaluating each candidate and the board relies almost completely on the results of psychometric tests to determine who is officer material, and who is not.
- The SANDF spends a relatively short time on the formative training of its officer candidates. This implies that not enough time is spent on leadership character development activities, such as adventurous training. Leadership character develops over time, and the shorter the time spent in laying the

foundation for future leadership character development, the less developed the character may be. The SANDF also does not follow a process to specially select the instructors of the training institution.

- Lastly, the SANDF does not have a military leadership institution. There is thus no institution dedicated to staying relevant on military leadership matters. Academics of such institutions do research and analysis of contemporary developments in the military leadership field, and translate this knowledge into policies and doctrines to be applied by the military. Any military force without a leadership institution will be poorer in knowledge and worse off with regards to training practices in leadership development, than a military force with such a leadership institution.

In order to address the above-mentioned shortcomings, the FPS Model for leadership development in the SANDF is proposed. The components of the model address each shortcoming and the model can further be to the advantage of all South African citizens. The reason for this belief is firstly that the SANDF is the protector of South Africa's sovereignty and its constitutional values and principles. Citizens are entitled to have leaders with character protecting them. Secondly, the SANDF is a voluntary force. This implies that its officer corps is made up of citizens who are free to leave the SANDF and rejoin the civilian community. The FPS Model thus has the capacity to increase the nation's supply of leaders with character. Thirdly, certain components of the model individually have the potential to benefit society. For example, Convergent Leadership in the SANDF can spill over to society, and aid in establishing a unifying mechanism for the community at large. The principles of Political Participation address the essential ethical conduct and associated effectiveness of political leaders and senior government officials. The research output, residential seminars and gatherings with allied forces and leaders of other countries brought about by the Military Leadership Institution can be utilized for the benefit and continuous learning of other South African public sector institutions.

The following summarizes how the FPS Model addresses the shortcomings of the current SANDF Model, and shows the contribution of the model to the field of leadership development:

- A Convergent Leadership Policy is proposed to help in overcoming the challenges of a diverse force by providing an official unifying policy and creating a military milieu in which humane leadership will thrive. The envisaged result is a way of military life in which it is second nature to live the common values and principles of the policy, and in which soldiers choose to make it their own leadership philosophy by which they prefer to live.
- Political Participation mandates the model, secures funding for the realization of its components, contributes towards the longevity of the model and addresses the need for ethical conduct by politicians and senior public officials.
- Superior Selection provides for a separate SANDF unit focussed on the selection of officer candidates. The proper selection of candidates minimizes the possibility that subsequent efforts to develop the candidates will be fruitless expenditure, and maximizes the possibility of supplying the SANDF with leaders with character. It suggests the unit be manned by selection professionals, a longer time be made available to assess each candidate, and is an expansion of the current practice of relying on psychometric testing as the principal selection tool.
- Interventions for Leadership Character Development offer a way of directly influencing the character side of potential military leaders. Not only does it bring the potential of adventurous training to the front, but also ensures that more time is spent on moulding the character of young military leaders. It also suggests that instructors at officer training institutions be specially selected for

their ability to be examples for, and positively influence the leadership character of, officer candidates.

- A Military Leadership Institution ensures that the SANDF stays up to date on developments in the military leadership field. It benefits the SANDF by producing professional research results and makes sure that the leadership development policies, military doctrines and training practices of the SANDF are based on valid and recent research.

The science of leadership development is not an exact science, and many of the activities aimed at leadership and leadership character development are based on perceptions and beliefs which over time have become accepted practices in the field of leadership development. That is one of the **shortcomings of this research**, namely that although leadership character is viewed as a vital part of the total make-up of military leaders, no example could be found where the defence forces of Germany, United Kingdom or Canada actually test whether their respective leadership development activities actually develop their young military leaders' character. Such research would be valuable in augmenting the researcher's previous empirical research on specific activities aimed at developing leadership character.

A further shortcoming of the research is the lack of capacity to consider the total spectrum of each country's military leadership records and activities. One had to rely on those activities presented by the respective countries as representing their best practices in order to address the shortcomings of the current SANDF Model.

Nevertheless, it is submitted that the FPS Model offers new data and a new approach to leadership character development in the SANDF, which will, if implemented as an interrelated concept, improve on the current model.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Books

Bass, B.M. 1998. *Transformational Leadership: Industrial, Military and Educational Impact*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Burns, J.M. 1979. *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Burns, Y. & Beukes, M. 2006. *Administrative Law under the 1996 Constitution*. 3rd Ed. South Africa: LexisNexis Butterworths.

Collier, M. & Pedley, P. 2005. *Hitler and the Nazi State*. Germany: Harcourt Heinemann.

Downes, C. 1991. *Special Trust and Confidence: The Making of an Officer*. London: Frank Cass and Company Limited.

Du Brin, A.J. 1995. *Leadership: Research Findings, Practice and Skills*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Gerber, P.D., Nel, P.S. & Van Dyk, P.S. 1995. *Menslike Hulpbronbestuur*. 3rd Ed. Halfway House: Southern Publishers.

Grint, K. 1997. *Leadership: Classical, Contemporary and Critical Approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hunter, J.C. 2004. *The World's Most Powerful Leadership Principle: How to become a Servant Leader*. New York: Crown Business.

Ivancevich, J.M. & Matteson, M.T. 1996. *Organizational Behavior and Management*. 4th Ed. USA: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Johnson, C.E. 2001. *Meeting the Ethical Challenges of Leadership*. London: Sage Publications.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. 2003. *The Leadership Challenge*. 3rd Ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Krass, P. 1998. *The Book of Leadership Wisdom*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Levicki, C. 1998. *The Leadership Gene The Genetic Code for a Lifelong Leadership Career*. London: Financial Times Management.

McCauley, C.D., Moxley, R.S. & Van Velsor, E. 1998. *Handbook of Leadership Development*. California: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Shriberg, A., Lloyd, C., Shriberg, D.L. & Williamson, M.M. 1997. *Practicing Leadership: Principles and Applications*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Shriberg, A., Shriberg, D.L. & Lloyd, C. 2002. *Practicing Leadership: Principles and Applications*. 2nd Ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

South Africa Survey 2006/2007. 2007. Johannesburg: South African Institute of Race Relations.

Steers, R.M., Porter, L.W. & Bigley, G.A. 1996. *Motivation and Leadership at Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Stoner, J.A.F. & Freeman, R.E. 1989. *Management*. 4th Ed. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Terry, R.W. 1993. *Authentic Leadership: Courage in Action*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Williams, R., Cawthra, G. & Abrahams, D. 2003. *Ourselves to Know: Civil-military Relations and Defence Transformation in Southern Africa*. South Africa: Institute for Security Studies.

Yukl, G.A. 1981. *Leadership in Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Journals and Articles and Internet Sources

Abrahams, D. 2001. Defence Conversion in South Africa: A Faded Ideal? *Institute for Security Studies*, July 2001, Occasional Paper No 51. Accessed January 2007. www.sabinet.co.za

Abrahams, D. 2008. Military Base Conversion in South Africa: Opportunities for Local Economic Development. *Springer Science & Business Media*. 20 February 2008. Accessed December 2008. www.springerlink.com

Army Study Guide. 2008. *Battle Focused Study Guide*. Accessed April 2008. www.armystudyguide.com

Barbuto, J.E. & Cummins-Brown, L.J. 2007. Full Range Leadership. *University of Nebraska-Lincoln Extension*. Revised October 2007, No G1406. Accessed June 2008. <http://extension.unl.edu/publications>

Birke, W. 2000. Officer Selection in the Federal Armed Forces of Germany. *Research and Technology Organization*, August 2000, meeting proceedings 55. Accessed July 2008. <ftp://ftp.rta.nato.int>

Canada Department of National Defence. 2008. *Canadian Forces Leadership Institute*, 2 September 2008. Accessed October 2008. www.cda-acd.forces.gc.ca/cfli-ilfc

Canada Department of National Defence. 2000. *The Canadian Forces Officer Selection System*. Defence Technical Information Centre, August 2000. Accessed March 2008. <http://oai.dtic.mil>

Canada Department of National Defence and Canadian Forces. *400 Years of Military History to Discover*. Accessed August 2008. www.forces.gc.ca

Canada's Military. 2008. *Canadian Forces in the 21st Century*. Accessed September 2008. www.cbc.ca/news

Canada National Defence, Canadian Expeditionary Force Command. *Current Operations*. Accessed August 2008. www.cefcom.gc.ca

Caromba, L. 2008. *South Africa: The Case for Military Action on Zimbabwe*. Accessed July 2008. www.iol.co.za

Clark, D. 2000. *Leadership – Character and Traits*. Accessed November 2006. www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadchr

CNN News, 2003. *U.S. Launches Cruise Missiles at Saddam*. 20 March 2003. Accessed September 2008. www.cnn.com/2003/WORLD

Cock, J. 1989. The role of violence in State Security Strategies 1984 – 88. *Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation*. Accessed March 2007. www.csvr.org.za

Coleman, M. 1990. State violence: A Study in Repression. *Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation*. Accessed June 2008. www.csvr.org.za

Coutu, D.L. 2004. Putting Leaders on the Couch. *Harvard Business Review*, January 2004. Accessed February 2007.

<http://hbr.harvardbusiness.org/2004/01/putting-leaders-on-the-couch/ar/1>

Cuthbert, C.A. 2007. Developing Pentathletes – Another Tool for the Box. *Army*. July 2007. Accessed April 2008. www.donhcs.com

Erasmus, W.D. & Van Rensburg, J.L.J. 2001. Character Makes Leaders: Horsemanship Training and the Development of Junior Officer Leadership at the South African Military Academy. *Journal of Public Administration*, September 2001, Vol 36, No3.

German Embassy, Washington, D.C. *Welcome to Germany*. Accessed February 2008. www.germany.info

German Government. 2008. *Chronology of Bundeswehr Missions*. May 2008. Accessed July 2008. www.bundesregierung.de

German Institute for International and Security Affairs. 2008. *The German Army and Counterinsurgency in Afghanistan*. February 2008. Accessed July 2008. www.swp-berlin.org

German Federal Ministry of Defence. 2006. *The Zentrum Innere Führung*. June 2006. Accessed April 2008. www.bmvg.de

Gibson, E. 2007. Sex Scandal Rocks Army Academy. *Beeld in News 24*, 21 November 2007. Accessed October 2008. www.news24.com/News24/South_Africa/News

Gibson, E. 2008. Army Fraudsters Get Promoted. *Beeld in News 24*, 11 July 2008. Accessed October 2008. www.news24.com/News24/South_Africa/News

Goleman, D. 2005. What Makes a Leader. *Harvard Business Review*, 2005 Reprint. Accessed February 2007. <http://harvardbusinessonline.hbsp.harvard.edu>

International Military Testing Association. 2005. *Military Leadership Centres*. Accessed October 2008. <http://www.internationalmta.org/Documents/2005/2005082T>

Kellerman, B. 2004. Leadership Warts and All. *Harvard Business Review*, January 2004, Vol. 82, Issue 1. Accessed February 2007. www.sirim.my/techinfo/P1/Management/Jan-Feb04/jan-feb04_article5.htm#AN0011800915-5

Kenya Government Ministry of State for Defence. *Armed Forces Training College*. Accessed March 2008. www.mod.go.ke

Kirkbride, P. 2006. Developing Transformational Leaders: The Full Range Leadership Model. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 2006, Vol 38 No 1. Accessed June 2008. www.emeraldinsight.com

Krishnan, V.R. 2001. Value Systems of Transformational Leaders. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 2001, Vol 22 No 3. Accessed October 2008. www.emeraldinsight.com

Krulak, C.C. 1998. The Fourteen Basic Traits of Effective Leadership. *The Circle, Omicron Delta Kappa's Newsletter*. Accessed March 2007. www.emsc.nysed.gov

MacLennan, B. 2006. Travelgate: 14 Plead Guilty. *Mail & Guardian Online*, 16 October 2006. Accessed October 2008. www.mg.co.za/article

Magadlela, D. 2008. Ubuntu: Myth or Antidote to Today's Socio-political and Leadership Challenges? *Mail & Guardian Online*, 9 January 2008. Accessed June 2008. www.thoughtleader.co.za

Malan, M. 1995. Leadership, Integration and Civic Consciousness: From *Innere Führung* to *Ubuntu*. *African Security Review*, 1995, vol 4, no 3.

Mashike, L. 2007. Blacks can Win Everything, but the Army: The Transformation of the South African Military between 1994 and 2004. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, September 2007, Vol 33 No 3.

McGregor, P. 2006. The Role of *Innere Führung* in German Civil-Military Relations. *Strategic Insights*, April 2006, Vol V, issue 4. Accessed February 2008. www.ccc.nps.navy.mil

McCrimmon, M. 2007. *The Meaning of Leadership*. 4 October 2007. Accessed August 2008. <http://businessmanagement.suite.com>

Menon, T. & Kotze, E. 2007. Human Resources Integration in the South African Military: A View from the Trenches. *Human Resources Management*, 2007, Vol 46 No 1. Accessed January 2008. www.interscience.wiley.com

Middlebrooks, J.C. 2006. *Contemporary Leadership and Management Issues and Arguments*. 5 October 2006. Accessed August 2008. www.associatedcontent.com

Mills, G. & Wood, G. 1992. A Handful of Armies: The Future Prospects of the Homeland Defence Forces. *South African Defence Review*, 1992, issue No 5. Accessed April 2008. www.iss.co.za

Modise, T. The South African National Defence Force Integration. *Institute for Security Studies*. Accessed April 2008. www.issafrica.org

Mortimer, D. 1995. Integration, Demobilisation and Rationalisation. *African Security Review*, Vol 4, No 6. Accessed April 2008. www.iss.co.za

Mount Allison University, Centre for Canadian Studies. 2007. *Defending Canada*. January 2007. Accessed November 2007. www.mta.ca

Niethammer, L. 2008. German Army Takes Command of Strike Force in Northern Afghanistan. *World Socialist Web Site*, 8 July 2008. Accessed August 2008. www.wsws.org/articles

Noetzel, T. & Schreer, B. 2008. *The German Army and Counterinsurgency in Afghanistan*, February 2008. Accessed May 2008. www.swp-berlin.org

Online Encyclopaedia. Accessed February 2008. <http://encyclopedia.jrank.org>

Peters, M. & Barnes, C. 2008. Shame of First Woman Admiral. *Saturday Argus in Independent Online*, 15 March 2008. Accessed October 2008. www.iol.co.za

Prinsloo, J.P. 2006. *Hundreds of Future Officers Excel*. Accessed February 2008. www.dod.mil.za/news/news2006

Scheck, R. 2006. *Germany and Europe, 1871-1945*. Accessed March 2008. www.colby.edu/personal/r/rmscheck/

Schwella, E. 2009. Die Begogeling van Toksiese Leiers. *Die Burger*, 27 Maart 2009. Accessed March 2009. www.dieburger.com

South Africa Business Guidebook, 2006/07. Accessed March 2008.
www.sabinet.co.za

South Africa Department of Defence. 2006. *Our Soldiers off to the Comoros*. May 2006. Accessed July 2008. www.dod.mil.za

South African National Defence Force Defence Corporate Communications. 2008. *Shared Values for the Department of Defence*. 2 September 2008. Accessed November 2008. [www.dcc.mil.za/Code of Conduct](http://www.dcc.mil.za/Code_of_Conduct)

South Africa Department of Defence. 2007. *SANDF Operations Communications Workshop*. September 2007. Accessed July 2008. www.dod.mil.za

South African Government. 2006. *Report of the Portfolio Committee on Defence on the Study Tour to Canada – 4 till 12 November 2006*. Accessed July 2008.
www.parliament.gov.za

Thie, H.J. & Brown, R.A. 1994. *Future Career Management Systems for U.S. Military Officers A National Defense Research Institute Study*. Accessed August 2008.
[www.rand.org/pubs/monograph reports/2007/MR470.pdf](http://www.rand.org/pubs/monograph_reports/2007/MR470.pdf)

Tyler, S. 2008. Sergeants Aim for Promotion on Sandhurst Course. *Soldier Magazine*. August 2008. Accessed November 2008. www.mod.uk

United Kingdom British Army. *The British Army Website*. Accessed August 2008.
www.army.mod.uk

United Kingdom Defence Academy. 2008. *Defence College of Management and Technology: Defence Leadership & Management Centre (DLMC)*. Accessed October 2008. www.da.mod.uk/colleges

United Kingdom Ministry of Defence. 2007. *British and Afghan Forces Launch New Offensive Against the Taliban*. July 2007. Accessed July 2008. www.mod.uk/DefenceInternet

United Kingdom Royal Military Academy Sandhurst. 2008. *RMAS Courses*. Accessed November 2008. www.sandhurst.mod.uk

United States Embassy. *Current U.S. Forces*. Accessed September 2008. www.usembassy.at

University of Stellenbosch. 2009. SIGLA Lei Militêre Leiers en Staatslui Op. *Campus News*, 5 March 2009, year 17, No 1.

Van Dyk, G.A.J. & Van Niekerk, N.J. 2004. Military Leadership: A Challenge Beyond Full Range Leadership. *Journal of Public Administration*, June 2004, Vol 39, No 2.

Whitaker, R. & Elliot, F. 2006. Generals Call For Faster Iraq Pull-out. *The Independent*, 5 February 2006. Accessed September 2008. www.independent.co.uk

Williams, R.M. 2000. The South African Defence Review and the Redefinition of the Parameter of the National Defence Debate: Towards a Post-Modern Military? *Temporary Security Policy*, April 2000, vol 21, no 1.

Zaleznik, A. 2004 Managers and Leaders: Are they Different? *Harvard Business Review*. Accessed February 2007. www.theleadershipbuilder.com/PDF/1_ManagerLeader.PDF

Unpublished Dissertations

Mileham, P.J.R. 2001. *British Army Officership: Paradigm evolution 1960–2001*. A thesis submitted for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Politics and International Relations, University of Lancaster.

Theletsane, K.I. 2007. *Developing a Conceptual Model for Transformation at the South African Military Academy: The Ubuntu Approach*. A thesis submitted for the degree Masters in Military Studies in the Faculty of Military Science, University of Stellenbosch.

Van Rensburg, J.L.J. 2001. *Aspekte van Organisasie-Kultuur in die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag*. A thesis submitted for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Public and Development Management, University of Stellenbosch.

State and Government Publications

Canada. 2003. *Duty with Honour: The Profession of Arms in Canada*. A leadership publication under auspices of the Chief of the Defence Staff by the Canadian Defence Academy – Canadian Forces Leadership Institute.

Canada. 2005. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine*. A leadership publication under auspices of the Chief of the Defence Staff by the Canadian Defence Academy – Canadian Forces Leadership Institute.

Canada. 2005. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations*. A leadership publication under auspices of the Chief of the Defence Staff by the Canadian Defence Academy – Canadian Forces Leadership Institute.

Canada. 2007. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Leading People*. A leadership publication under auspices of the Chief of the Defence Staff by the Canadian Defence Academy – Canadian Forces Leadership Institute.

Canada. 2007. *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Leading People, Summaries*. A leadership publication under auspices of the Chief of the Defence Staff by the Canadian Defence Academy – Canadian Forces Leadership Institute.

Germany. 1993. *Innere Führung (Leadership and Civic Education)*. Joint Service Regulation no ZDV 10/1. Bonn.

Germany. 2001. *Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany*. Text edition December 2000. Berlin: German Bundestag Public Relations Section.

Lekota, M.G.P. 2008. *Address by the Minister of Defence, Hon M.G.P. Lekota: Defence Budget Vote, National Assembly*. 27 May 2008.

Modise, J. 1998. *Address by the Minister of Defence, Mr. J. Modise MP: Defence Budget Vote, National Assembly*. 26 May 1998.

South Africa. 1996. *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996* (Act 108 of 1996). Pretoria.

South Africa. 1996. *White Paper on National Defence for the Republic of South Africa*. 8 May 1996.

South Africa. 1998. *South African Defence Review*. April 1998.

South Africa. 2000. *South African Army Leadership, Command, and Management Manual (Draft Copy)*. South African Army. May 2000.

South Africa. 2003. *The Defence Act 2002* (No 42 of 2002). Government Gazette, 20 February 2003.

South Africa, Department of Defence. 2007. *Presentation of a Half-Day Civic Education Seminar to DOD Top Officials 28 September 2007*. September 2007, Bulletin No 54/07.

South Africa, Department of Defence. 2008. *Operation Prosper: SANDF Support to the SAPS in Restoring Law and Order iro Attacks on Foreign Nationals in Gauteng Province*. May 2008, Bulletin No 27/08.

South Africa. Undated. *The Advanced Full Range Leadership Manual*. South African Army.

South Africa. Undated. *The Basic Full Range Leadership Manual*. 1st Ed. South African Army.

South Africa. Undated. *Profession of Arms in the SANDF*. South African National Defence Force.

South Africa. Undated. *Proposed Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture*. Department of Defence.

South African Military Academy. 2008. *Strategic Business Plan for FY2008/09 to FY2010/11*. 28 February 2008.

United Kingdom Defence Leadership Centre. 2004. *Leadership in Defence*. A leadership publication with permission of the British Ministry of Defence by the Defence Leadership Centre – Defence Academy. Shrivenham: Crown Copyright.

Research Reports

Walker, R.W. 2006. *The Professional Development Framework: Generating Effectiveness in Canadian Forces Leadership*. A research report under instruction of the Canadian Defence Academy. Canada. 2006.

Interviews

Allender, C. 2007. Personal interview in Westbury, England, with Lieutenant Colonel C. Allender, Education Advisor at the Army Officer Selection Board during November 2007.

Bach, A. 2007. Personal interview in Koblenz, Germany, with Brigadier-General A. Bach, Officer Commanding at *Zentrum Innere Führung* during November 2007.

Bennet, M. 2007. Personal interview in Camberley, England, with Mr. M. Bennet, Deputy Head of Communications & Management Studies at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst during November 2007.

Booÿjens, M. 2008. Personal interview in Saldanha, South Africa, with Major M. Booÿjens, Senior Military Instructor at the South African Military Academy during May 2008.

De La Hey, B. 2007. Personal interview in Camberley, England, with Lieutenant-Colonel B. De La Hey, Commander Old School at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst during November 2007.

Gerhard, P. 2007. Personal interview in Koblenz, Germany, with *Oberst im Generalstabsdienst* (Colonel) P. Gerhard, Chief of Staff at *Zentrum Innere Führung* during November 2007.

Horn, B. 2007. Electronic interviews with Colonel B. Horn, former director of the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute, Canadian Defence Academy during 2007.

Hughes, B. 2007. Personal interview in Camberley, England, with Major B. Hughes, Staff Officer Leadership at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst during November 2007.

Janse van Rensburg, L.S. 2008. Telephonic interviews and e-mail correspondence with Lieutenant Colonel L.S. Janse van Rensburg, Branch Commander Officer Formative Branch at the SA Army Gymnasium during July 2008.

MacLachlan, J. 2008. Personal interview in Saldanha, South Africa, with Ms J. MacLachlan, Faculty Administration Official at the South African Military Academy during September 2008.

Norman, S. 2007. Personal interview in Westbury, England, with Lieutenant-Colonel (retired) S. Norman, Advisor at the Army Officer Selection Board during November 2007.

Peddle, C.M. 2008. Telephonic interview with Colonel C.M. Peddle, Senior Staff Officer Career Management at SA Army Headquarters during July 2008.

Pommerin, R. 2007. Electronic interviews with Professor R. Pommerin who holds the chair for Modern and Contemporary History at the Technical University of Dresden, Germany, and who is a member of the Joint Task Group of the German Federal Minister of Defence, during 2007.

Wilke, C. 2007. Personal interview in Koblenz, Germany, with *Oberstleutnant* (Lieutenant-Colonel) C. Wilke, Staff Officer Army at *Zentrum Innere Führung* during November 2007.

APPENDIX A

PERCEPTIONS OF CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT AMONG MILITARY ACADEMY EQUESTRIAN COURSE STUDENTS PERSEPSIES VAN KARAKTERONTWIKKELING ONDER MILITÊRE AKADEMIE BEREDE KURSUS STUDENTE
--

1. It is commonly accepted that character development plays an important role in the overall development of officers

2. The aim of this questionnaire is to determine the perceptions of students on the value of equestrian training in the development of character.

3. Biographical data will include the following: Arm of service, gender, rank group, age.

4. Themes and topics include the following: Perceptions of the individual regarding the development of physical and moral courage, self-confidence, withstanding setbacks, acceptance of advice and criticism and selfless service.

5. Definition:

- a. Character – personal attributes, qualities or disposition that differentiates the one person from the other.

6. You are kindly invited to express your personal experience on the value of equestrian training in the development of character traits.

7. Your views, convictions and opinion will be treated with the greatest confidentiality (You will not be asked to mention your name).

8. PLEASE FOLLOW THE PRESCRIBED INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY AND REMEMBER TO ANSWER EVERY QUESTION AS HONESTLY AS POSSIBLE.

1. Dit word algemeen aanvaar dat karakterontwikkeling 'n belangrike deel van offisiere se totale ontwikkeling uitmaak.

2. Die doel van hierdie vraelys is om die persepsies van studente betreffende die waarde van berede opleiding in karakterontwikkeling te bepaal.

3. Biografiese besonderhede sluit die volgende in: Weermagsdeel, geslag, ranggroep, ouderdom.

4. Temas en onderwerpe sluit die volgende in: Persepsies van die individu oor die ontwikkeling van fisiese en morele moed, selfbeheersing, selfvertroue, verwerking van terugslae, aanvaarding van advies en kritiek en onbaatsugtige diens.

5. Definisie:

- a. Karakter – persoonlike kenmerke, eienskappe of inbors wat die een persoon anders maak as die ander.

6. U vriendelik uitgenooi om u persoonlike ondervinding uit te spreek oor die waarde van berede opleiding in die ontwikkeling van karaktereenskappe.

7. U oortuigings en mening sal streng vertroulik hanteer word (U sal nie gevra word om u naam te vermeld nie).

8. VOLG ASSSEBLIEF DIE INSTRUKSIES NOUKEURIG EN ONTHOU OM ELKE VRAAG SO EERLIK MOONTLIK TE BEANTWOORD.

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFO/ AFDELING A: BIOGRAFIESE INLIGTING

Please answer the following questions by making a "X" in the appropriate block

Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae deur 'n "X" in die toepaslike blokkie te maak

1. Arm of Service

SA Army	1
SA Air Force	2
SA Navy	3
SA Military Health Services	4
Corporate division	5

Weermagsdeel

SA Leër	1
SA Lugmag	2
SA Vloot	3
SA Militêre Geneeskundige Diens	4
Korporatiewe afdeling	5

2. Gender

Male/ Manlik	1
Female/ Vroulik	2

Geslag

Manlik	1
Vroulik	2

3. Rankgroup

Candidate-officer/midshipman	1
Second-lieutenant/ensign	2
Lieutenant/sub-lieutenant	3
Captain/lieutenant	4

Ranggroep

Kandidaatoffisier/Adelbors	1
Tweede-luitenant/Vaandrig	2
Luitenant/Onder-luitenant	3
Kaptein/Luitenant	4

4. Age

18 years or younger	1
19 years	2
20 years	3
21 years	4
22 years	5
23 years	6
24 years	7

Ouderdom

18 jaar of jonger	1
19 jaar	2
20 jaar	3
21 jaar	4
22 jaar	5
23 jaar	6
24 jaar	7

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

SECTION B: PERSONAL EXPERIENCE
AFDELING B: PERSOONLIKE ONDERVINDING

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following:...
Tot watter mate stem jy saam of stem jy nie saam nie met die volgende:...

Courage
Moed

5. An officer should possess physical and moral courage
 'n Offisier moet oor fisiese en morele moed beskik

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 5.1 During the equestrian course I sometimes experienced fear
 Tydens die berede kursus het ek soms vrees ondervind

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 5.2 During the course I had to overcome that fear.
 Tydens die kursus moes ek daardie vrees oorkom.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

- 5.3 I can use this experience to overcome fear in other situations during my career.
Ek kan hierdie ondervinding om vrees te oorkom tydens ander situasies in my loopbaan toepas.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 5.4 The course had a positive effect on my perception of my ability to overcome fear.
Die kursus het my persepsie oor my vermoë om vrees te oorkom positief beïnvloed.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

Self-control
Selfbeheersing

6. An officer must be able to exercise self-control.
'n Offisier moet selfbeheersing kan toepas.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 6.1 During the course I was never exposed to frustrating situations (e.g. unwilling horse).
Tydens die kursus was ek nooit blootgestel aan frustrerende situasies nie (bv. onwillige perd).

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

- 6.2 During the course I never had to force myself to overcome these frustrations in a calm manner.

Tydens die kursus moes ek myself nooit forseer om hierdie frustrasies met 'n kalm benadering te oorkom nie.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 6.3 I can not use this experience of calmly overcoming frustrations, in other situations during my career.

Ek kan nie hierdie ondervinding, om frustrasies met 'n kalm benadering te oorkom, tydens ander situasies in my loopbaan toepas nie.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 6.4 The course had a negative effect on my perception of this ability within me to exercise self-discipline under conditions of stress.

Die kursus het my persepsie van hierdie inherente vermoë om selfdissipline onder stresvolle omstandighede toe te pas, negatief beïnvloed.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

Confidence
Selfvertroue

7. An officer must demonstrate confidence.
'n Offisier moet selfvertroue demonstreer.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

- 7.1 During the course I had to act in a positive manner in order for the horse to trust me in doing certain things which I asked (e.g. to jump over an obstacle).
Tydens die kursus moes ek op 'n positiewe wyse optree sodat die perd my kon vertrou in sekere eise wat ek gestel het (bv. om oor 'n hindernis te spring).

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 7.2 I can use this experience in demonstrating confidence to earn trust, in other situations during my career.
Ek kan hierdie ondervinding in die demonstrasie van selfvertroue om vertroue te wen, in ander situasies tydens my loopbaan toepas.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 7.3 The course had a positive effect on my perception of this ability within me to demonstrate confidence.
Die kursus het my persepsie van hierdie inherente vermoë om selfvertroue te demonstreer, positief beïnvloed.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

Setbacks **Terugslae**

8. An officer must have the ability to withstand setbacks.
'n Offisier moet die vermoë hê om terugslae te verwerk.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

- 8.1 During the course I never experienced situations, where some confidence that I gained were lost.
Tydens die kursus het ek nooit situasies ondervind waar ek van die selfvertroue wat ek opgebou het, verloor het nie.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 8.2 During the course I never had the opportunity to overcome these setbacks and regain my confidence.
Gedurende die kursus was daar nie die geleentheid om hierdie terugslae te verwerk, en my selfvertroue te herwin nie.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 8.3 I can not use this experience in withstanding setbacks during my career.
Ek kan nie hierdie ondervinding in die verwerking van terugslae tydens my loopbaan gebruik nie.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 8.4. The course had a negative effect on my perception of this ability within me to withstand setbacks.
Die kursus het my persepsie oor hierdie inherente vermoë om terugslae te verwerk, negatief beïnvloed.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

Advice and criticism
Advies en kritiek

9. Officers must be able to accept advice and criticism.
 Offisiere moet oor die vermoë beskik om advies en kritiek te aanvaar.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 9.1 During the course I was continuously told and shown what to do.
 Tydens die kursus was ek voortdurend vertel en gewys wat om te doen.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 9.2 When I did something wrong, it was communicated to me.
 As ek iets verkeerd gedoen het, was dit aan my gekommunikeer.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 9.3 By not accepting this advice and criticism, I would have progressed slower on the course.
 Die nie aanvaarding van hierdie advies en kritiek sou veroorsaak dat ek stadiger met die kursus vorder.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

- 9.4 During my career, I will remember how the acceptance of advice and criticism aided me in accomplishing difficult tasks.

Tydens my loopbaan, sal ek onthou hoe die aanvaarding van advies en kritiek my gehelp het in die bereiking van moeilike take.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 9.5 The course had a positive effect on my perception of the value of advice and criticism.
Die kursus het my persepsie oor die waarde van advies en kritiek, positief beïnvloed.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

Selfless service
Onbaatsugtige diens

10. An officer must be prepared to render selfless service.
'n Offisier moet bereid te wees om op 'n onbaatsugtige wyse diens te lewer.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 10.1 During the course I realized that stabled horses are totally dependent on humans for their well-being.
Tydens die kursus het ek besef dat gestalleerde perde totaal van mense afhanklik is vir en hul welstand.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

CONFIDENTIAL/VERTROULIK

- 10.2 During the course I realized that the life span of the equipment is a function of the riders maintenance thereof.

Tydens die kursus het ek besef dat die lewensduur van die toerusting 'n funksie van die ruiter se onderhoud daarvan is.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 10.3 Although it has not always been enjoyable, I realized that this care and maintenance was necessary.

Alhoewel dit nie altyd genotvol was nie, het ek besef dat hierdie sorg en onderhoud nodig was.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

- 10.4 The equestrian course had a negative effect on my perception of the importance of care and maintenance.

Die berede kursus het my persepsie oor die belangrikheid van sorg en onderhoud negatief beïnvloed.

Strongly Agree Stem beslis saam	Agree Stem saam	Neutral Neutraal	Disagree Stem nie saam nie	Strongly disagree Stem beslis nie saam nie
1	2	3	4	5

11. Any other comment you would like to add wrt the course?

Enige opmerking wat u oor die kursus wil maak?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX B

BASIC FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP : MODULE 5



INDIVIDUAL PRACTICAL EXERCISE

Instructions : In the following exercise you will be required to delegate a task to one of the four employees: Miles, Flint, Sam and Perry. Please review the steps in order to develop a successful delegation plan.

Step 1 : Review the brief description of each individual. The persons being described may remind you of co-workers or followers with whom you worked in the past or with whom you are currently working. If they do remind you of people you know, try to add to the descriptions we've provided.

Step 2 : Think of some behavioural examples that represent the type of individuals presented in these descriptions.

Step 3 : The next step is diagnosis. Identify what you feel are the strengths and weaknesses of each person described in the cases. Make a list of the weaknesses using the form on page 5-10 that you want to work on as well as strengths that you feel can be developed further. Also, identify for each individual areas that they could personally benefit from development.

Step 4 : You are now ready to delegate. Identify a particular aspect of your job that you feel would be appropriate to delegate to one of the individuals described. Delegation literally means charging someone with the responsibility and authority to complete a task or make a decision for you. A better way of describing delegation is that you are entrusting and empowering your follower to make decisions and take action in an area that you have responsibility.

Step 5 : Apply the Four "I's" to delegation. As you work your way through the process of delegating responsibilities, use the Four "I's" of transformational leadership as well as constructive and corrective transactional leadership to maximise the chosen individual's development potential.

DOODLE





Your four employees

Read all four cases below before proceeding. You may provide a suitable rank for the employees in your organisation.

☐ Miles

Miles tries to maximise his personal goals whether they are at the expense of others or not. For example, he wants to be the youngest leader in the history of the organisation to be promoted to OC of a major unit.

Miles puts people into two categories - those who help his cause vs. those who hinder him in achieving his objectives. Miles sees others as having similar motives to his and therefore judges people on that basis. Miles is a very capable individual but he is unable to work co-operatively with others, unless it serves his own personal needs and objectives.

☐ Flint

Flint considers the personal interests and attitudes of others. Flint recognises the needs of others as being different from his and, therefore, attempts to co-ordinate his needs with the needs of others. Flint has been known to sacrifice his personal needs and goals to maintain good relations with his colleagues. Generally, he attempts to please everyone as much as possible and has a high regard and mutual respect for his colleagues.

Flint's problem is that he has difficulty taking a firm stand on issues. He tends to walk away from or delay the tough fights that have to be dealt with at work. It's not that Flint is unmotivated, rather it's simply not his style to take tough stands on issues that require a firm hand. He simply does not seem capable of taking the hard line on an issue if it is going to hurt someone's feelings.

☐ Sam

Sam is considered one of the high potentials in the organisation and a future top-level leader. He believes that individuals should be allowed to work at projects that stretch them to the limits of their capabilities. Stretching people, providing the appropriate support and rewards for performance, and working towards a common goal or purpose is the philosophy that underlies Sam's actions and behaviours. He is a very quick learner and highly motivated to do the best job. Everyone respects Sam for his hard work and accomplishments. People who work with Sam place a great deal of trust in his ability to overcome obstacles.

His energy tends to get others working harder. Most people describe him as hard working, inner-directed and the type of individual to whom you would seek if you needed help. When you are with Sam, you feel that you have his undivided attention. Your opinion and how you feel really matter to him.

☐ Perry

Perry has worked in the organisation for 15 years and has become increasingly alienated from co-workers and his leader. He feels that the organisation owes him, and he will produce the minimum amount of effort to get by in his job. As changes have been introduced in new technology, he is generally the last one to come up to the new performance standards. He is not motivated to work nor is he motivated to learn new and better ways to do his job. Perry was considered a capable leader when he was initially promoted into leadership roles.





() Miles

Strengths :

Weaknesses :

Areas for development :

() Sam

Strengths :

Weaknesses :

Areas for development :

() Flint

Strengths :

Weaknesses :

Areas for development :

() Perry

Strengths :

Weaknesses :

Areas for development :





Individual Delegation Plan

Employee :

Task to be completed :

[illegible]

Rationale for choosing the employee :

Delegation Plan :

[illegible]



SYNDICATE PRACTICAL EXERCISE

Instructions : Before you can delegate your task to the chosen employee, you need to consider and answer the following questions.

1. What is the existing situation, and how will completing the task change the situation?

2. What restrictions may interfere with the task?

3. Realistically, how soon must the task be completed?

4. What generally are the budget and available resources for achieving the task?

5. What is a specific, measurable goal, so that you will know when the task is successfully completed?

6. What skills and knowledge are needed for the task?

7. Who, among my available candidates, has the skills and knowledge that I'm looking for?

8. Does the Delegatee need any additional training?

9. What other kinds of support will be necessary?

10. **W**hat level of authority will you be giving the Delegatee during the course of completing the task?

11. What strategies will you employ in order to maintain successful ongoing communication with the Delegatee?

Syndicate Delegation Plan

Employee :

Task to be completed :

Rationale for choosing the employee :

Delegation Plan :

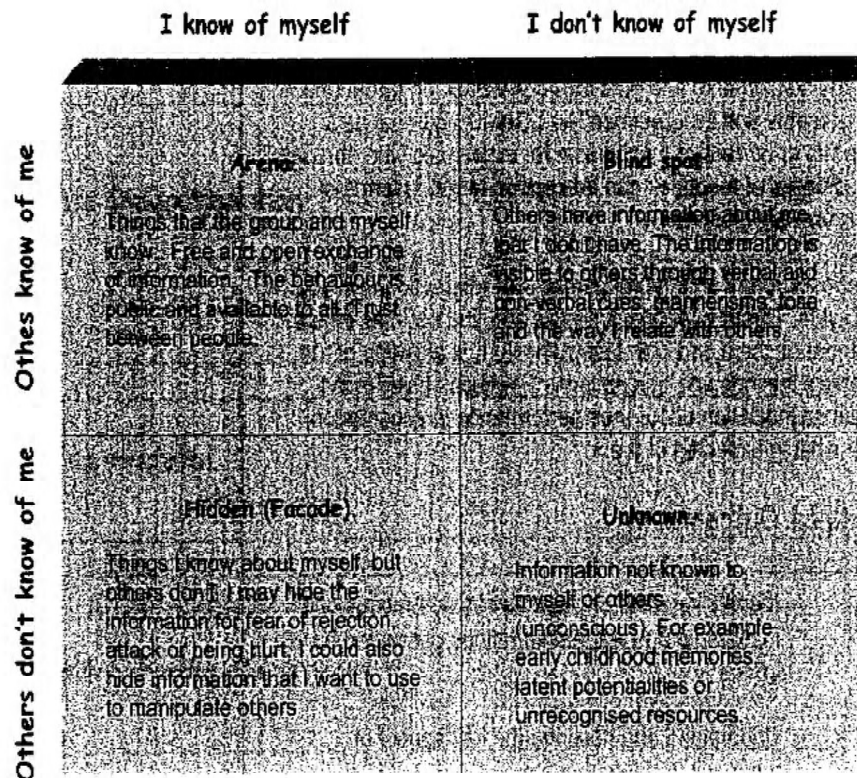
APPENDIX C

BASIC FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP : MODULE 6



THE JOHARI WINDOW OF FEEDBACK

The process of giving and receiving feedback can be illustrated through a model called the Johari Window. This model was originally developed by two psychologists, Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham. The process can be seen as a communication window through which you give and receive information about yourself and others.



You manage things, you lead people.
 -Adm. Grace Murray Hopper-

BASIC FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP : MODULE 6





THE JOHARI WINDOW QUESTIONNAIRE

Rate yourself regarding the following questions by using a 10 point scale, where 1 equals never and 10 equals always.

- 1 I never do this
- 2 I almost never do this
- 3 I hardly ever do this
- 4 I seldom do this
- 5 I do this on occasion
- 6 I do this frequently
- 7 I do this a good deal of the time
- 8 I do this most of the time
- 9 I do this nearly all the time
- 10 I do this consistently

Questions

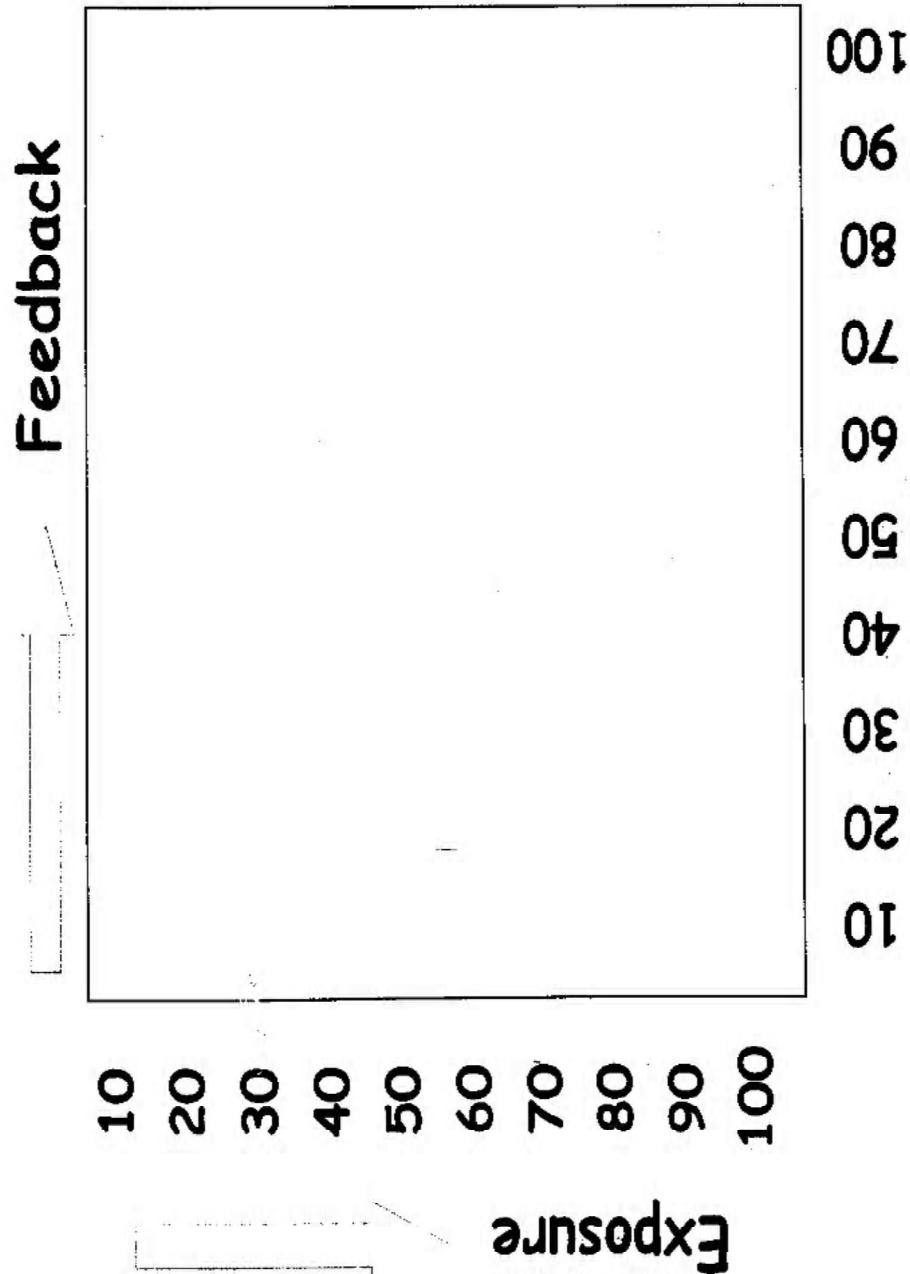
- 1 ___ I am open and straight-forward in my dealings with others.
- 2 ___ I respect and accept the comments and reactions of others.
- 3 ___ I specifically test for agreement and commitment to joint or team decisions.
- 4 ___ I easily admit to confusion or lack of knowledge when I feel that I have little information about the topic under discussion.
- 5 ___ I show my concern that others know where I stand on relevant issues
- 6 ___ I take the initiative in getting feedback from others.
- 7 ___ I tell others about my opinion of what they do and how they do it rather than covering up, bearing with it or denying my reaction.
- 8 ___ My comments are relevant to the real issues at hand.
- 9 ___ I try to understand how others feel and what their opinions are by working hard at getting information from them.
- 10 ___ I value and encourage reactions equally from others. I ask all team members and treat all inputs as important.
- 11 ___ I openly show that I like people in the team and enjoy working with them.
- 12 ___ I help others to participate, by giving support for inputs and drawing people into discussions.
- 13 ___ I take risks with others by exposing highly personal information, both emotional and intellectual when it is relevant.
- 14 ___ I welcome and appreciate other's attempts to help me, no matter how critical of direct their feedback may be.
- 15 ___ I openly try to influence an individual or a group, as opposed to being manipulative
- 16 ___ I press for extra information when I feel that others are not being open and honest with me.
- 17 ___ I am openly hostile towards others when I am angry with them as opposed to acting unaffected or restrained.
- 18 ___ I encourage collaboration on problems and draw other people's definitions, solutions and ideas.
- 19 ___ I am spontaneous and say what I think no matter how ridiculous it may seem, instead of monitoring my contributions so that they are in line with other people.
- 20 ___ I give support to others who are struggling to express themselves intelligently and emotionally.

Calculate the rating for the "Feedback" questions : 2,3,6,9,10,12,14,16,18 and 20: _____

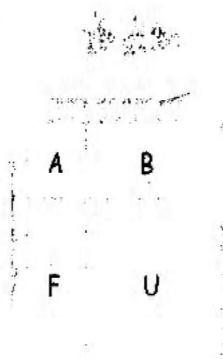
Calculate the ratings for the "Exposure" questions : 1,4,5,7,8,11,13,15,17 and 19 : _____



Johari Window Feedback Chart



Type A : Great Unknown (U)



Little use of exposure and feedback-seeking. The dominant area is the Unknown, wherein lies a wealth of untapped potential. Leaders who display this type may desire anonymity, but find it impossible. Followers see their leader as detached and uncommunicative. Leaders provide little structure or encouragement and cling to the security of standard operating procedures (Defensive-Bureaucratic Style).

Type B : Large Facade (F)



The person wants to belong and be accepted, resulting in low exposure but high feedback-seeking. In practice this person enquires about others while diverting attention from one-self. The leader may want to establish sound relationships, but experience antagonism as people may feel that the individual is trying to hide something. This style of pursuing closeness, but fearing rejection, prevents mutual trust; because it rests on very little self-trust and confidence. (Permissive-Apprehensive).



Tell me and I'll forget.; show me and I may remember; involve me and I'll understand
Chinese Proverb

Type C : Large Blind Spot (B)

A B

F U

These leaders do not seek feedback from others and are normally not concerned with the impact of their behaviour on the people around them. They are quick to share their opinions of others in a very directive/autocratic fashion. Followers react by withholding information and provide selective feedback- which only serves to confirm the leader's suspicions that followers have very little to offer. Leaders may realise that the blind spot dominates their relationships, but will not believe that they (the leader) are missing so much.

Type D : Large and Balanced Arena : The Ideal Window (A)

A B

F U

Exposure and feedback-seeking are used to a great and equal extent. Leaders may be met with suspicion by followers who have not experienced such open and honest relationships. The watchword for this data exchange is relevant work related and relationship related. To develop this style will not be easy as many frustrations will have to be dealt with before followers realise that they have to do with a leader who is serious about them and the relationship. The size of the Arena increases as the level of trust in a group or team develops. The large Arena suggests that much of the person's behaviour is open for others to see. As a result, the chances of misinterpreting behaviour, is less.



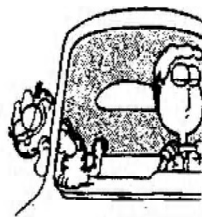
As you go through life, whatever be your goal, keep your eye on the doughnut and not upon the hole.
-Mayflower Coffee Shop Slogan-

Development

One goal that we may set for ourselves in the group/syndicate setting, is to decrease our Blindspots. This means that the vertical line on the model will move to the right. I can do this by asking people for more feedback on my behaviour and characteristics, but most importantly, I need to develop an attitude that encourages other people to give me feedback.

I can reduce my Facade, in other words move the horizontal line downwards, by giving more information about myself. This means that I explain my intent, perceptions, values and opinion of myself and others. Through this process the group knows where I stand on issues and does not have to question or interpret my behaviour.

You will notice that as you work on decreasing the Blind Spot and Facade, the Unknown starts to shrink and at the same time the Arena starts to grow.



Taken from : Garfield: Here's Looking At You (Jim Davis)

DOODLE



Sources of Feedback

APPENDIX D

BASIC FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP : MODULE 7



MODULE 7 : LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Introduction :

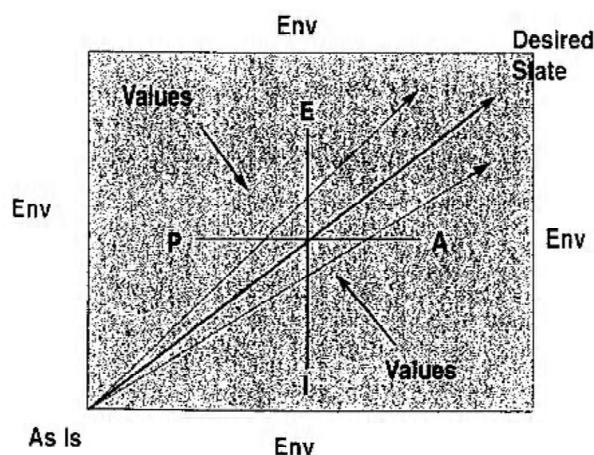
In this session, participants will reformulate their original leadership developmental plan constructed in Module 6. (All development plans are subject to change as more relevant information is received.) The revised plan should take into account your peer feedback and any additional information you feel applies to your plan. The revised plans will be presented to each syndicate and critiqued by syndicate members. Participants will also discuss key obstacles to implementing their plans back on the job. Participants will also be asked to focus on a particular problem between the end of the current workshop and the second workshop.

Desired Outcomes : The following outcomes are desired for this module:

- Identify key leadership behaviours to address back on the job and the strategy to implement their respective plans considering relevant constraints.
- Understand the potential blockages that inhibit effective leadership.

A Model of Direction and Development

Developed by Lt Col J. Jordaan



BASIC FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP : MODULE 7



7-1

DOODLE



Leadership Development



"LEADERSHIP BLOCKAGES"

Overview: We all must deal with many kinds of constraints in our work environment that can affect the success of our personal development plans. To highlight some of the key constraints to leadership, we want you to complete the leadership blockages questionnaire below. After you have completed this survey individually, we will score it in the plenary session.

Instructions: Please respond to the items below by circling the response, T (True), F (False) or ? (Not Sure), that best represents your opinion. Unless you are completely unsure, do not use the third category!

(Remove questionnaire from manual before writing)

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|-----|---|
| T | F | ? | 1. | Most people do not seek out challenges in their work. |
| T | F | ? | 2. | Money or advancement are the only rewards which seem to motivate people. |
| T | F | ? | 3. | Most people here feel that their personal objectives have little to do with the organisations. |
| T | F | ? | 4. | Most people do not have to earn the rewards they get in my organisation. |
| T | F | ? | 5. | Most employees want to be told the solution to problems rather than trying to figure it out themselves. |
| T | F | ? | 6. | Most employees spend time complaining about what they can't do versus what they can do. |
| T | F | ? | 7. | Most people around here are not very excited about their work. |
| T | F | ? | 8. | There is very little incentive to take risks in our organisation. |
| T | F | ? | 9. | I can't trust my followers in my absence to take responsibility for getting the job done right. |
| T | F | ? | 10. | Most people in the organisation find it difficult to get excited about the organisation's vision. |
| T | F | ? | 11. | Most people in my organisation aren't concerned about improving the methods they use to do their job. |
| T | F | ? | 12. | Rewards are primarily placed on meeting deadlines, rather than on developing employees. |
| T | F | ? | 13. | People in our organisation generally don't have the opportunity to learn from their mistakes. |
| T | F | ? | 14. | Co-workers do not reinforce each other for changing or developing in a positive way. |
| T | F | ? | 15. | Supervisors and managers do not have the time to develop followers. |
| T | F | ? | 16. | My organisation rewards performance, not the development of employees. |
| T | F | ? | 17. | I feel that employees have little incentive to improve themselves at work. |
| T | F | ? | 18. | It would be difficult to show the majority of employees in my area the advantages of self-development |
| T | F | ? | 19. | There are few rewards in my organisation for people who take time to help improve others. |
| T | F | ? | 20. | This is the type of organisation that doesn't support people who want to change and improve their methods of doing their job. |
| T | F | ? | 21. | Most people do not feel that they get adequate support from the organisation to do their job. |
| T | F | ? | 22. | The organisation has not clearly prioritised its objectives. |
| T | F | ? | 23. | Most people don't know what's expected of them. |
| T | F | ? | 24. | There are too many conflicting demands competing for employee's time during the day. |
| T | F | ? | 25. | I don't get support from my superior when I try to introduce new procedures on the job. |
| T | F | ? | 26. | It is not always clear what the goals are for my area. |
| T | F | ? | 27. | Changes that I introduce at work are generally threatening to my superior. |
| T | F | ? | 28. | It is difficult to introduce new innovative methods. |
| T | F | ? | 29. | Managers in this organisation are not very tolerant of differences of opinions. |
| T | F | ? | 30. | The chain of command in our organisation is simply top-down. |

Scoring the "Leadership Blockages". Please add up the number of True's, False's and Not Sure's circled for the following items:

Items 1-10: True =	False =	Not Sure =	(Motivation)
Items 11-20: True =	False =	Not Sure =	(Development)
Items 21-30: True =	False =	Not Sure =	(Support)





SOME SPECIFIC BLOCKAGES TO EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

- Low Self-Confidence
- Unfairness/injustice
- Conflicting Goals And Priorities
- Low Initiative
- Work Overload
- Mistrust
- Inadequate Rewards
- Risk Avoidance
- Inadequate Time
- Resistance To Change

Please add any other blockages that are relevant to you or your organisation



Success isn't measured by how far we've got, but by the distance we've travelled from where we started.

DOODLE



Leadership Development





INDIVIDUAL PRACTICAL EXERCISE

Overview: You have scored and interpreted the Leadership Blockages Survey; therefore, you should have a general idea of factors in your organisation that can inhibit the implementation of your leadership development plan. Now you need to focus inward and examine your current willingness and capability to accomplish the objectives you've identified for your personal development in Module 6.

In addition to focusing on external factors such as organisational blockages, examine whether there are characteristics about yourself that may inhibit your plan. Keep in mind that self-evaluations are often inflated regarding the ability and potential to lead. Try to be as realistic as you can in determining both your ability and motivation to lead more effectively. Partition the steps to improvement that will work best for you.

You can incorporate the feedback you received from your peers in your "Needs Analysis." The figure below gives a simple method for helping you to conduct the "Individual Needs Analysis Matrix."

On the vertical dimension of the figure, you are judging your level of willingness or motivation to pursue a particular objective. On the horizontal dimension, you are evaluating your current capability of achieving the objective.

(Again, be sure to consider feedback from peers.) This analysis will help you to determine how much effort as well as skills will be needed to accomplish your plan. The four cells in the matrix provide categories to help identify what you will need to do to accomplish the goal(s) in your Leadership Development Plan.

Depending on your level of willingness and capability, the type of goal you set may vary. For example, if you are willing to delegate more responsibility to followers, but don't know how, then your goal must be modified to acquire skills to delegate.

However, if you are motivated to delegate (or not resistant), your goal would not include attitude development. Those who are not ready to delegate would need to first develop or change their attitude.

Conversely, you may have delegated in the past using the rules for effective delegation discussed in Module 6. However, you may have discovered that the organisation did not support such activity. In this case, you seem to have the skills, but are no longer favourably disposed toward delegation.

Willing	Needs skill goal	Needs challenging goal
Unwilling	Needs attitude and skill goal	Needs attitude goal
	Incapable	Capable

Individual Needs Analysis Matrix



TIPS FOR IMPROVING YOUR LEADERSHIP

- **D**etermine what you are trying to accomplish? Be specific regarding the attitude, behaviours, skills, etc, you are attempting to change.
- **How** will you reach your main goal? Remember your strategy, level of support needed and block ages you must overcome.
- **When** do you expect to reach the goal? You can break the goal down into sub-goals and assign the time you feel is necessary to achieve each. Keep in mind that the total time you will have is the two to three months between the Basic and Advanced Workshops. Identify key areas in your plan that you can accomplish in this time period. The overall goal may not be achieved in three months. However, you should be able to accomplish relevant sub-goals, which can lead to your primary goal. Moreover, your ultimate goals for personal development will likely stretch out well into the future. To summarise, for your team's discussion, review each of your objectives and identify the goal(s) you will focus on to achieve your personal development. Use the worksheets on pages 7-9 and 7-11 to summarise your goal statements.
- You can also use the **Learning Centre** process to help develop your individual leadership potential :
 - * Select a learning partner to assess the issues you are addressing in your development plan. This individual becomes your peer coach.
 - * If available, ask a facilitator from your organisation to observe and to help coach you and your learning partner through the early phases of your development plan. If a professional facilitator is not available, you may want to involve your supervisor and/or more senior associates.

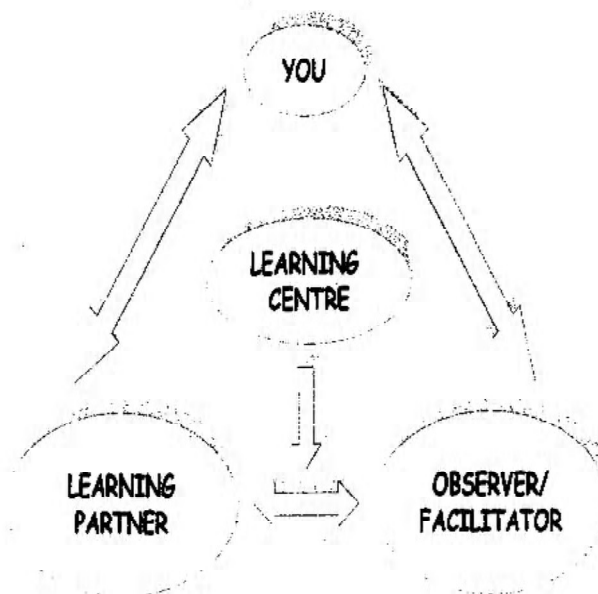
DOODLE



Personal Development Plan



- * Establish **ground rules** or expectations for the Learning Centre in the form of a contract :
- What is each member's responsibility to the other?
 - What is the goal(s) of the Learning Centre?
 - What are the ground rules for feedback and coaching?
 - How will you evaluate your success?
- * Over time, you and your learning partner will switch roles in working on your development plans.



Each of us has to struggle along our own path of personal growth. The effort, although sometimes painful, makes us stronger.

DOODLE



Leadership Development

WORKSHEET FOR YOUR GOAL AND SUB-GOAL STATEMENTS

MY GOAL

WHAT:

HOW:

WHEN:

*EVALUATION

SUB-GOALS

WHAT:

HOW:

WHEN:

*EVALUATION

APPENDIX E

BUDDY RATING PRACTICAL LEADERSHIP EXERCISE I



No _____

INSTRUCTIONS

1. No names of both the rater or the member rated are to be displayed anywhere on this form.
2. Complete a rating for every member in your syndicate as well as a rating lastly for yourself.
3. Write down an incident(s) after the question *before* you score on the 1-5 Likert Scale (par 4).
4. Encircle the chosen answer on the 1-5 Likert Scale, eg:

- a. Was the member alert to individual needs during Exercise Matlapeng ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	③	4	5

5. Keep prejudices and perceptions in mind when you do the rating !
6. Your contribution will serve as a valuable source of personal feedback.

DIMENSIONS

4. The buddy rating will be done on three dimensions, ie Transformational Leadership, Military Professional Officership and Mission Accomplished.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE 4 I'S

5. Individualised Consideration. The leader shows individual consideration by appreciating each colleague's potential to contribute and by providing support and encouragement.

- a. Was the member alert to individual needs during Exercise Matlapeng ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

b. Did the member delegate to help develop followers ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

c. Did the member recognise diversity amongst the group and utilised it for mission accomplishment during the different activities?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

d. Did the member assign tasks based on individual ability and needs ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

6. Intellectual Stimulation. The leader discussess new idea's and offers good examples to encourage followers to change their basic way of thinking.

a. Did the member encourage the followers to use intuition during exercise Matlapeng ?

Incident(s): _____

3

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

b. Did the member publicly criticize followers for making mistakes ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

c. Doesn't expect the followers to think like him/her ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

7. Inspirational Motivation. The leader convinces the followers that they have the ability to achieve levels of performance beyond what they felt was possible.

a. Did the member arouse in the followers emotional acceptance of the challenges during the week ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

b. Did the member create a sense of priorities and purpose during the exercises ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

- c. Did the member enlists total involvement of the followers/colleague's during the exercises ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

- d. Did the member demonstrate self-determination and commitment to reach the goal/mission ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

8. Idealised Influence. The leader influences followers by showing them the way to attain shared ideals / goals.

- a. Did the member ease group tension in critical / difficult times of the exercise?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

- b. Did the member demonstrate any unusual competence during the week ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

- c. Did the member sacrifice self-gain for the gain of others and did he/she show dedication to followers ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

MILITARY PROFESSIONAL OFFICERSHIP

9. Military Bearing. The correct military bearing, ie neatness in appearance, pride in uniform, saluting and compliments, is an important attribute of an officer in the SANDF.

- a. Did the member exhibit an example of military bearing and conduct at all times ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

10. Enthusiasm. Keenness and energy with which an individual carries out his/her mission/task.

- a. Did the member show enthusiasm in the approach and execution of the assigned task(s) ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

11. Reliability. Trustworthiness, dependability, conscientiousness and thoroughness necessary to see a task through to its completion.

a. Was the member reliable during the week of exercise Matlapeng ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

12. Co-operation. The extent to which an individual is co-operative in all his/her dealings.

a. Did the member portray co-operation during the week of exercise Matlapeng?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

13. Judgement. The ability to approach challenges practically and logically. Henceforth, the ability to draw sound conclusions and applying discernment.

a. Did the member made use sound judgement during the execution of a task/mission ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

MISSION ACCOMPLISHED

14. Objective Achieved. The successful attainment of the defined mission.

a. Did the member had a clear understanding in his/her mind of the mission assigned?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

b. Did the member explained the mission assigned to the syndicate and was it clearly understood ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5

c. Was the mission successfully accomplished ?

Incident(s): _____

Poor / Not at all	Acceptable / Some Times	Satisfactory / Frequently	More than Satisfactory / More frequently	Excellent / Always
1	2	3	4	5